California Journal

OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

This Month

- **High School-College Articulation in Foreign Language**
- **Vocational Agriculture?**
- **Industrial Arts in Junior High School**
- **High School Graduates Speak Out**

A Symposium on

THE INTERNSHIP IN TEACHER EDUCATION

VOLUME 32, No. 8 **DECEMBER 1957**

Next month a Symposium on

CALIFORNIA'S MOST REQUIRED SUBJECT: PHYSICAL EDUCATION

CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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A Symposium Next Month on California's Most Required Subject: Physical Education

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EDITORIAL

THE CHANGING INTELLECTUAL CLIMATE OF THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL

During the past half century the American high school has been striving to enroll and to retain all youth during most of their adolescent years. This task, now all but accomplished, has been no mean achievement. No other group of people on this earth ever before undertook such a mission. The soundness of this conception of providing and requiring so much schooling, which developed in America during the nineteenth century, is suggested in its recent spread to other parts of the world. And some countries have made such rapid strides forward that our once secure lead no longer appears certain.

Having achieved the goal of getting all youth into school, the American people are now turning their attention to the kind of education that is most appropriate for youth of high school age. A great and full-scale debate is in progress in which we are trying to decide what knowledge is of most worth and how true wisdom may be developed in youth. We are attempting to agree upon priorities, for it has become abundantly clear that we cannot do everything. The accumulating body of knowledge and skills has become so great, and the urgency of the times so insistent, that the making of wise choices from the multitudinous alternatives has become paramount.

This debate, and the choices to be made, it is agreed, shall not be the concern of any particular segment of American society or of educational specialists. It is rather a matter of broad social policy which must be hammered out of the thorough and vigorous discussion of everyone, both lay and professional persons working together.

On every hand, in the public press, on television and radio, in books and magazines, and in local, regional, and national conferences, may be seen a growing concern with the future course of the American high school. An example, and a most significant one, is the national conference last month, called cooperatively by the University of Chicago and the National Citizens Council for Better Schools in which over one thousand educators and citizens met to discuss The American High School—Challenge of the New Era. Every person interested in education will look forward to the forthcoming publication by the University of Chicago Press of the deliberations of this conference.

This widespread public discussion has now proceeded far enough to indicate a substantial body of agreement upon the course that the American high school should chart. A consensus seems to be emerging on such points as the following:

1. That the central task of the American comprehensive high school—which means a single institution that enrolls all of the youth in the community—is to develop in young men and women the capacity to make wise choices. This is both an intellectual and a moral problem, in which a disciplined mind must function within a complex set of circumstances. Every possible effort must be directed toward producing wisdom in youth, or at the very least, laying the foundations for its development.
2. Since every human being in a free society must be able to make wise choices, and since this involves the capacity to be able to move freely and capably in the realm of both fact and value, the curriculum of the high school must be thorough and balanced, both in the sciences and in the humanities, for every pupil.
3. While no agency which deals with youth—be it home, school, or church—can neglect, in the performance of its unique function, any aspect of human development, whether it be physical, emotional, social, or intellectual, each institution has its own unique point of attack and responsibility. The unique function of the school is the fostering of intellectual power, the maximum development in each person of the power of his mind for disciplined reason.
4. Primary attention in the high school program shall be directed toward its quality, with emphasis upon high standards of achievement.
5. The work of the high school is so important and demanding as to require as teachers only persons of outstanding quality and excellence of training. Much higher standards for teaching in the American high school must be attained.
6. Since the number of pupils to be educated is growing so rapidly, and the educational task is so large, the talents of those who are fully qualified to teach must be used to the utmost and not wasted. Every effort must be made so to use and reward creative teaching talent that outstanding people will be attracted to, and remain in, teaching.
7. Some segments of society more than others have adjusted to the demands of new knowledge and to conditions emerging so swiftly in a rapidly changing technological world. The school, and especially the high school, to keep from becoming hopelessly outdistanced, must embark upon experimentation and its leaders exercise such ingenuity as materially to increase the effectiveness, the efficiency, and the quality of its operations.

While the great debate opened with acrimonious accusation and countercharge, a solid core of agreement is being reached. Laymen, educationalists, and academicians appear ready to join hands in a responsible way to solve the difficult and complex problems facing us. There is an encouraging drop in the use of labels and namecalling, in the attempt to hide behind large,

empty slogans, and a greater disposition to study concretely and specifically the problems and necessities of providing an adequate secondary schooling for all youth. There appears to be a willingness to look afresh at time-worn practices, to seek wherever in our own culture we can obtain help, and also to learn from peoples in other parts of the world who have also been grappling in their way with the problem of educating youth during this transition period of adolescence.

The American high school appears to be entering upon, as the Chicago conference title suggests, a new era. It is beginning to set off in NEW DIRECTIONS. In so doing, it continues to remain true to the frontier tradition in which it was born and nourished.

R. N. B.

GROWING ROLE OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

President Robert Gordon Sproul of the University of California has again spoken out against the unwise proposal that American colleges and universities meet their onrushing problem of zooming enrollment by limiting matriculation through arbitrary quotas or artificially high admission standards.

He condemns such shoddy devices as inimical to the American ideal, which demands equal opportunity for all youths seeking higher education.

As a logical and just alternative, Dr. Sproul suggests further development of the two-year, or junior, college, which has proved of immeasurable value in California. Dr. Sproul told the American Council on Education, recently that this State's fifty junior colleges, with the assistance of its four-year State colleges, had saved the University of California from enrollments nearly double those that are now overtaxing its plant and teaching staff.

He observed that such local colleges provide training for thousands of students who could not afford to attend colleges away from their home communities and also serve other thousands who would not desire or could not handle a full four-year college course.

His enthusiasm for the junior college is shared by Dr. James Bryant Conant, former president of Harvard University, who has said: "Talk about limiting enrollment to a relatively small elite is beside the point. A larger rather than a smaller fraction of the youth will in the future enroll in post-high school institutions. But it by no means follows that almost all these students should be accommodated in four-year colleges and universities. There would be no inconsistency with our educational ideals if local, two-year colleges were to enroll as many as half of the boys and girls who wish to engage in formal studies beyond high school."

From yet another viewpoint, the Council for Financial Aid to Education, an organization founded by businessmen to promote interest in higher education, sings the praises of the junior college. It notes that such colleges have comparatively simple programs, place an unpretentious emphasis on teaching, maintain plants with small overhead, and thus make the educational dollar go far.

—Editorial, *San Francisco Chronicle*, Oct. 14, 1957

From High School to College in a Foreign Language

By DOROTHY CLARKE SHADI*

The new college freshman steps into a problem when he enters a foreign language class to continue a study begun in high school, whether he has enrolled in the course by requirement or of his own volition. What he accomplished in his first two years in high school has probably been swallowed up in one semester of college work; and thereafter he finds that the pace is doubled—and that he must double or treble his efforts merely to keep his feet unentangled and his head above water. Moreover, he probably must quickly become accustomed to unfamiliar methods, devised to keep him racing against time. The unorientated freshman, unless he is one of those rare robust characters ready to meet the unexpected at every turn, is well nigh helpless in the new situation. He is at the mercy of the system and of his instructors—yes, instructors, in the plural, because both his high school and his college instructors are responsible for his welfare and together must endeavor to ease for him the pain of acute freshmanitis in the area where the attack is usually most severe: his foreign language course.

The seriousness of the problem of articulation between high school and college foreign language courses has been recognized for years, but until recently this problem was like the weather in Mark Twain's famous remark to the effect that everybody talks about it, but nobody *does* anything about it. Dr. Cecilia Ross, during her recent presidency of the Foreign Language Association of Northern California, did something about it: she set the Association's Research Committee[1] to work on it. The Research Committee, in turn, via questionnaires and interviews, set about gathering information from heads of foreign language departments of the public high schools and the four-year colleges and universities of Northern California, and was rewarded with a response that was sufficient to give a reliable cross section of practices and policies in the northern part of the State. The conclusions drawn from the study suggested possibilities of specific improvements in the present system. Questions concerned placement, course content, objectives, and methods. Additional information from the colleges brought to light a comparison of their accreditation policies, their entrance and graduation requirements, and their foreign language offerings. The high school principals cooperated generously in furnishing figures on enrollments in the various languages.

* Associate Professor of Spanish, University of California, Berkeley.

[1] Members of the Committee were: Brother Austin, Kenneth Edwards, Mrs. Emelia Lamar, Hortense Hackman, Dr. Cecilia Ross, and Prof. D. C. Shadi, *chairman*. Copies of the original report may be obtained on request from D. C. Shadi, 4314 Dwinelle Hall, University of California, Berkeley 4, California.

The public high school student of Northern California usually begins his foreign language career simply by enrolling in a foreign language course, three times out of five in Spanish; if not in Spanish, then in French or Latin, rarely in German, Italian, or Chinese.[2] Perhaps he has taken a prognostic test; more than likely he has not. If he has, the test probably was the *Luria-Orleans Modern Language Prognosis Test,* the most favored standardized test being employed for the purpose of predicting his success. If he passes his first course, he may proceed to the second, though some schools require of him a grade of at least C before he may attempt the next higher course. When he has completed two years of the language, he will probably drop the subject—and rapidly forget most of what he has learned. If he is fortunate enough to be attending a school in which the third and fourth years of language are offered, he may, but probably will not, continue his study. His decision to continue or discontinue his foreign language—indeed, to study a foreign language at all—may depend largely on his choice (if he has made one) of college. And, conversely, his success in the study of foreign language may determine his choice of college! Of the twenty-one Northern California colleges and universities reporting on requirements, only eight require two years of high school foreign language credit for entrance; thirteen require none. As long as our student has completed two years, then, his choice of college is no longer limited to the thirteen, as far as foreign language entrance requirement is concerned. If he plans to work for a bachelor of arts degree, however, it behooves him to think of the college graduation requirement, which he may complete in part or in full while he is still in high school, for eleven institutions require four college semesters or their (high school) equivalent in a foreign language, one requires three, and only nine require none.

Two, three, four years of foreign language completed in high school—how much has been forgotten when the new freshman finds himself a seat in his college class? Does it matter? To five colleges it does matter, and Freshie must take a placement examination before he may assign himself to a class. Sixteen colleges, however, simply determine his placement by his high school credit, though six of these latter offer the examination as an alternative. There seems to be some disagreement, too, as to the value of the first and second year high school credits, come time for college. About half the institutions allow the same credit for the first and second years as for the third and fourth; the others consider the first two years as the equivalent of only one of the others, credit-wise. The credit confusion is hardly more than a moment's bewilderment to Freshie, however. He simply takes what he is given and goes on from there. He is probably at sea in his new surroundings, anyway, and more concerned with his own salvation than

[2] In the fall semester of 1954 public high school foreign language enrollment in the forty-six northern counties of the State was 48,955, distributed as follows: Spanish, 30,775; French, 8,078; Latin, 7,946; German, 1,677; Italian, 450; Chinese, 29. The total high school population was 173,026. These statistics were gathered by the FLANC Research Committee.

with mere riddles. He wants to take hold of something somewhere, and start moving with the class.

Our student stands almost a four-to-one chance of getting a firm grasp on the new course with a reasonable amount of ease if he keeps his wits about him, for about 75 percent of our public high schools follow the *Minimum Essentials for a Foreign Language Program for the High School* (*Bulletin of the California State Department of Education,* Vol. XVIII, No. 3, May, 1949), which covers the basis for the grammar and reading skill stressed in most college lower division courses. Although he will have to double his speed in learning and will have to use his eyes and his dictionary more, and his tongue, perhaps, less than he did before; and although he may sometimes sigh for the games and stories, the skits, the songs, the peppy records and the movies of his recent childhood, he can usually be counted on to wipe his own tears and knuckle down to business—if not with gusto, at least with good will and determination. He will feel sufficiently at home in the methods employed by his college instructor to be able to adapt himself to some unfamiliar methods. Greater stress on grammar for both reading and writing—since for the mature mind grammar is a shortcut via reasoning, whereas the principle of imitation is necessarily employed in teaching the younger student—less class drill and blackboard practice, fewer short quizzes and more dependence on the comprehensive examination, less word-for-word translation, more rapid reading for comprehension, less reviewing—in short, less help and more self-reliance—are some of the things to which he must quickly accustom himself. He must learn to be his own drill master. It is not so much the change itself, however, as the suddenness of it that is likely to throw the new freshman off balance.

The shock of sudden change is of concern to the student's teachers. His high school teacher must prepare him for it, and his college instructor must guide him through it—but they, too, have their problems. And if one is apathetic, the already heavy burden of the other is doubled. The high school teacher is faced with a greater variety of objectives than is the college instructor: in addition to the development of the language skills of speaking, understanding, reading, and writing, he must place great emphasis on culture and world citizenship, and sometimes even on literary appreciation, since he must consider the welfare of many of his students who will never enter college. The high school teacher is baffled by the differences among colleges in evaluation of high school foreign language credit and has difficulty, therefore, in planning his courses. Differences among colleges in entrance and graduation requirements create a difficulty for high school teachers in making a difference in incentive among students. The tenth grade foreign language course may tend to become a terminal course for many students, whereas for others it will be preparation for more advanced work. A double aim at this level is an obstacle to effective teaching. A strange situation exists in regard to Latin. Although Latin is one of the three most popular languages taught in the high schools, few colleges offer it. More-

over, difference in objectives and methods between high school and college work is apparently greater in Latin than in modern languages. In all the languages the sharp drop in enrollment between second and third year and again between third and fourth year in the high schools, resulting in the breaking of the continuity of foreign language study for many students, creates a problem in the colleges and adversely affects credit evaluation of high school work. This problem is a part of a vicious circle involving college evaluation of high school credit. The college instructor, moreover, must quickly mold into a homogeneous group students of widely varied backgrounds: some have had their foreign language courses recently, others may not have studied for two years or more; some have comé from classes in which the college preparatory students have been separated from the students not interested in college, or interested at most in one that has no foreign language requirement; some have had excellent training in English, others have not learned the difference between adjective and adverb; some come from large schools where the competition has been keen or have had their elementary training in college, others are quickly out-distanced by their more experienced classmates. Problems, problems, problems!

In spite of the problems, the Research Committee was by no means pessimistic as it concluded its study, for it was clear that better articulation between high school and college foreign language courses may be achieved. The committee therefore offered the following recommendations: first, that as nearly as possible the same relative importance should be given to objectives in high school and college; second, that for the information and guidance of both high school and other college departments, college departments should issue statements periodically (perhaps in the FLANC *Newsletter*) concerning their individual objectives and methods; third, that both high school and college teachers should be invited to write a description or an explanation of any original and particularly successful method of teaching any phase of language, and that possibly prizes should be offered for the best ideas, and the winners should be invited to give demonstrations at foreign language teachers' meetings; fourth, that college evaluation of high school credit should be made as uniform as possible; and fifth, that high school counselors as well as teachers should be urged to recommend that students who plan to study a foreign language in college choose the language with the greatest of care, and continue the study of the chosen language throughout the high school years.

Is Vocational Agriculture in High School Doing Its Job?

By O. E. THOMPSON,* and S. S. SUTHERLAND†

Rapid advances in technology have taken place in all industries in the United States during the past thirty-five years. An outstanding example of swift mechanization has been in agriculture. The question arises: has the program for vocational agriculture in secondary schools kept pace with these changes?

Vocational agriculture has been an integral part of the high school curriculum in California for the past thirty-eight years. Some schools offered agriculture before the Smith-Hughes Law passed, in 1917, but with limited success.

Early attempts to introduce agriculture as a vocational course failed for lack of experience in this field. Recognizing this, the drafters of the Smith-Hughes Law set standards to make the course vocational. First, it was stipulated that vocational agriculture shall be offered "to persons over fourteen years who have entered upon or who are preparing to enter upon the work of the farm or the farm home." It was further stated that schools "shall provide for directed or supervised practice in agriculture either on a farm provided for by the school or other farm for at least six months per year." These two statements have guided the program from the beginning. Emphasis, properly enough, was placed on preparing boys to become farmers.

But since then a drastic change has come about in agricultural industry. In 1920, early in the program, about 29 percent of our national population came from the farms. In California, 14 percent were from farms. How different now! In 1950 the national percentage was cut nearly one-half—to 16 percent—and the California percentage was cut nearly two-thirds—to 5.4 percent. While the California population rose from 3.5 million to over 12 million the total number of farmers remained relatively constant. In 1950, 568,231 were classified as farmers compared with 493,513 in 1920.

Mechanization and other technical advances have been responsible for increased output per farmer. For example, if production per agricultural worker for the years 1947–49 is taken as a base of 100 the production per worker in 1920 is only half as great—49. The years 1953–54 yield an index of 151, triple the productivity of a third of a century ago. This helps to account for the fact that the number of farmers has not increased at the same rate as our population—and will not in the foreseeable future. This increase in mechanization, accompanied by an increase in land prices, has

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placed the capital requirements to enter farming beyond the reach of the average young man.

These facts tend to point toward two things that are vital to the program for vocational agriculture. First, there is less opportunity for the student to begin in farming unless he has, or is fortunate enough to obtain, the ideal situation. Second, mechanization and technical development increase the demands for a more highly trained farmer.

Paralleling this change on the farm has been an advance even more phenomenal. Before the rapid advances in agricultural mechanization the farmer tended to operate as an independent unit, providing most of the agricultural services desired. Today this is not generally true. Figures for the nation show that of the 62 million persons employed in our country, 10 million are employed on farms. Another 6 million (roughly 9.7 percent of employed persons) produce products for farmers or provide services for farmers. Another 9 million (14.5 percent) are employed in the processing and distribution of farm products. Therefore, for the 10 million farmers there are 15 million persons employed in industries related to agriculture. These figures are for the nation as a whole. There is reason to believe that with the intensive nature of farming in many parts of California these percentages of persons employed in providing goods and services to farmers and in processing farm products would be even higher in this State. What implications do these changes have for the program of vocational agriculture in the high school?

Design of the Study

In 1955 a survey was conducted throughout the vocational agriculture departments of California by the Bureau of Agricultural Education, State Education Department, in cooperation with the University of California. The objective was to gain basic information about the students currently enrolled in vocational agriculture classes, as a basis for long-time planning. Data were obtained on 11,361 of the 13,500 pupils enrolled in this program. These represented 538 classes in 203 of the 232 high schools offering vocational agriculture.

Each pupil was asked five major questions:

1. What was the pupil's place of residence? In other words, did he live on a full-time farm, part-time farm, labor camp, or in town.
2. Where was he obtaining his farm experience? Was it on his home farm, another farm, or didn't he receive any.
3. What were his vocational plans? Did he plan to become a farmer, was he undecided or did he definitely plan to do something other than farming.
4. Did he know where he could get a start in farming? Could he go into the home farm business or would he have to go elsewhere.
5. What were his plans for education after completion of high school? Did he plan to attend college?

These data were stratified both as to grade level of the student and type of community in which his school was located. School areas were divided into four different categories:

1. Small rural school, with enrollment below 800. Area with farming the major occupation, little or no industry.
2. Large rural school, with enrollment over 800. Located in or near smaller cities of population up to 25,000. Area primarily rural with farming and related occupations predominant. Little industry other than that related to or connected directly with agriculture.
3. Small suburban school, with enrollment under 800. Area adjacent to large city or definitely under urban influence. Housing developments and industry replacing agriculture. Many smaller part-time and residence farms.
4. Large suburban school, with enrollment over 800. Otherwise like No. 3.

The classification of each school was determined by persons who had been familiar with the school and community over a period of years.

Findings of the Study

Surprisingly little difference was found between the different grade levels of pupils so they will not be separated in this report. Differences in responses between pupils from rural and suburban schools were quite noticeable, though differences between the small and large schools in each group were small. The following presentation of findings makes extensive use of the stratification by type of school. Pupils from small and large schools in each type were combined for tests of significance.

TABLE 1

Residence of Vocational Agriculture Pupils

	All pupils Percent	Small rural Percent	Large rural Percent	Small suburban Percent	Large suburban Percent
Full-time farm Parents farm operators	32	38	39	14	13
Full-time farm Parents laborers or foremen ..	10	10	11	4	5
Part-time farms	23	23	24	21	22
Town	31	24	23	58	56
Other	4	5	3	3	4

It is apparent from Table 1 that only 32 percent (about one-third) of the total group of more than 11,000 pupils came from home farms. This percentage was less than 15 percent in the case of suburban high school pupils alone. Another one-third of the total group came from part-time farms or from farms where the parents are farm laborers. Most of the

remaining one-third of the entire group lived in town. The percentage of town residents was 56 to 58 percent for the suburban group.

TABLE 2

PLACE OF RESIDENCE AND TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOLS PUPILS ATTEND

Residence	Actual Frequencies		Expected Frequencies	
	Rural high school	Suburban high school	Rural high school	Suburban high school
On a farm	3,999	425	3,381	1,043
In town	2,310	1,521	2,928	903
	6,309	1,946	6,309	1,946

Chi square = 936.8. Tabled value 1 percent with 1 degree of freedom = 6.635.

When the two groups were compared, using chi square, a value of 936.8 (Table 2) was derived. Since this is much larger than the tabled value of 6.635, significance has been found. Chance alone would yield as large a difference only one time or less in 100 cases. There is evidence that a larger proportion of rural school pupils come from farms than is true for the suburban group.

TABLE 3

PLACE WHERE PUPILS ARE GETTING FARM EXPERIENCE

Experience	All pupils Percent	Small rural Percent	Large rural Percent	Small suburban Percent	Large suburban Percent
On home farm	49	53	57	30	31
On another farm in community	31	32	30	39	30
In agricultural work (not farm)	10	8	8	12	18
No farm or agricultural	10	7	5	19	21

Approximately 4/5, or 80 percent, of the pupils (Table 3) obtained some farm experience during the year, while only 10 percent received no agricultural experience. When considering the suburban groups alone it will be noted that 61 and 69 percent of these groups received some farm experience while 19 and 21 percent received no farm or agricultural experience. The percentage planning for agricultural work outside of farming was considerably larger for the suburban groups.

TABLE 4

FARM EXPERIENCE AND TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL

Experience	Actual Frequencies		Expected Frequencies	
	Rural	Suburban	Rural	Suburban
Get farm experience	7,946	1,633	7,445	2,134
No farm experience	1,298	1,016	1,799	515
	9,244	2,649	9,244	2,649

Chi square = 778.23. Tabled value 1 percent with 1 degree of freedom = 6.635.

The chi square test on the difference between rural and suburban school pupils in farm experience produced a value of 778.23 (Table 4). This is considerably larger than the tabled value needed for significance. Therefore it can be stated that significantly more pupils from rural high schools than from suburban schools are getting farm experience. This also implies that significantly more pupils in suburban schools are not getting farm experience than is the case in rural high schools.

TABLE 5

VOCATIONAL PLANS OF PUPILS AFTER COMPLETION OF HIGH SCHOOL

	All pupils Percent	Small rural Percent	Large rural Percent	Small suburban Percent	Large suburban Percent
Definitely plan to farm	49	47	54	38	47
Plan agricultural work (not farm)	17	15	15	21	21
Undecided about farming	28	31	26	35	26
Definitely not going into farming	6	7	5	6	6

About half (49 percent) of the entire group had decided to become farmers, while only 6 percent had definitely decided not to be farmers (Table 5). Twenty-eight percent were undecided as to what they wanted to do. These percentages did not vary appreciably among the different groups.

Since the calculated chi square (Table 6) is smaller than the tabled value no evidence is found to demonstrate that a significant difference exists between the two groups. There is no difference in the proportion of rural

TABLE 6

VOCATIONAL PLANS AND TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL

Plans	Actual Frequencies		Expected Frequencies	
	Rural	Suburban	Rural	Suburban
To become farmers	4,211	1,160	4,199	1,117
Undecided or definitely not planning to farm	2,896	824	2,908	812
	7,107	1,984	7,107	1,984

Chi square = 0.845. Tabled value 1 percent with 1 degree of freedom = 6.635.

and suburban high school pupils who plan to become farmers or are undecided or are definitely not planning to farm.

TABLE 7

PUPIL OPPORTUNITY TO GET A START IN FARMING

	All pupils Percent	Small rural Percent	Large rural Percent	Small suburban Percent	Large suburban Percent
On home farms	42	47	45	29	25
Another farm in community ..	16	17	15	21	18
No opportunity	42	36	40	50	57

TABLE 8

FARMING OPPORTUNITY AND TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL

Opportunity to farm	Actual Frequencies		Expected Frequencies	
	Rural	Suburban	Rural	Suburban
On home farm or another farm in community ...	4,545	873	4,270	1,148
Definitely no foreseeable opportunity	2,758	1,091	3,033	816
	7,303	1,964	7,303	1,964

Chi square = 201.18. Tabled value 1 percent level with 1 degree of freedom = 6.635.

The information presented in Table 7 conforms with that presented in Tables 1 and 3. When we consider the whole group, about an equal number (about 42 percent) had no foreseeable opportunity to enter farming as had an opportunity to start farming on the home farm. A total of 58 percent felt they could enter farming. The percentages suggest that there is quite a difference in opportunity between the rural and suburban groups.

The large calculated chi square value (Table 8) indicates that a significant difference exists between the rural and suburban groups in opportunity to get a start in farming. The pupils from rural high schools have more opportunity to get into farming than do those in the suburban high schools.

Almost one-half (45 percent) of the group polled (Table 9) plan to attend at least two years of college. Nearly one-fourth (24 percent) plan to complete four years or more of college work. About one-third (33 percent) indicated they were not going to college. Another 22 percent were undecided.

TABLE 9

PUPILS PLANS FOR ADVANCED STUDY

	All pupils Percent	Small rural Percent	Large rural Percent	Small suburban Percent	Large suburban Percent
Complete 4 years college	24	21	22	29	31
Complete 2 years college or junior college	21	18	20	18	22
No college	33	36	36	34	26
Undecided	22	25	22	19	21

Evidence found (Table 10) indicates that a significant difference exists between the college plans for pupils from rural and those from suburban

TABLE 10

COLLEGE PLANS AND TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL

College plans	Actual Frequencies		Expected Frequencies	
	Rural	Suburban	Rural	Suburban
Two or more years college	3,396	1,287	3,585	1,098
No college	2,996	671	2,807	860
	6,392	1,958	6,392	1,958

Chi square = 97.10. Tabled value 1 percent with 1 degree of freedom = 6.635.

high schools. A higher proportion of the pupils enrolled in vocational agriculture in suburban high schools plan for two or more years of college than of the pupils from rural high schools. Likewise significantly fewer rural school pupils plan to attend college than was found the case for suburban high schools.

Conclusions and Implications

The data derived by this study are believed to present a realistic picture of the pupils enrolled in vocational agriculture in California. As stated previously, vocational agriculture reimbursed from federal funds has the training of boys for farming as its primary objective. It can be further stated that all vocational education by present-day concept has as its primary objective the fitting of persons for useful employment.

The findings thus presented indicate that only about one-third of the pupils now enrolled in vocational agriculture come from farms; slightly less than one-half plan to become farmers; only 58 percent have an idea where they could possibly get a start in farming; and nearly one-half (45 percent) plan to take at least two years of college. If the program in vocational agriculture is to train for farming, to fit for useful employment, and to be terminal in nature, then serious consideration should be given to determine if the present program is meeting its selected objectives. While considering this it may be well to keep in mind the changes that have come about in the employment needs in agriculture outside the limited area of production farming. Perhaps some of these boys who are interested in agriculture but have little or no opportunity to become farmers should be guided into one of the many vocations in agriculture where training in agriculture is essential. This raises still another issue. What type of training program would meet the needs of these persons going into nonproduction agricultural work? Would it be the present project-centered vocational agriculture program, or should it be a work experience or other type of program? It is evident that changes both in concept and practice in vocational agriculture may be in order.

The data further show that this problem is undoubtedly more serious in the suburban high school than has developed in many of the recently rural areas. This is emphasized by the fact that a significantly smaller proportion of these pupils come from full-time farms, a significantly smaller proportion are obtaining farm experience, significantly fewer had an opportunity to start in farming, and a significantly larger proportion planned to continue their education into at least two years of college. These areas are conceivably those where there is the greatest need for persons in nonfarming agricultural work.

This discussion tends to indicate that several definite steps could be taken by administrators and teachers in schools where vocational agriculture is offered to ascertain whether or not the program is fulfilling the community needs in agriculture:

1. Survey the farming needs of the school area to determine what the outlook is for pupils to go back into farming in the community. Number and size of farms, trends in land ownership, cropping trends, land tenure, would be essential information.
2. Survey the local industries that employ persons who must have had training and/or experience in agriculture for their jobs. The numbers of these types of jobs currently filled, the future outlook in this job area, and the training needs of such persons would be valuable.
3. Formulate from the information found what should be the agricultural program in your high school. Assistance in this work is available from your Regional Supervisor, Bureau of Agricultural Education.

Certainly this is not a problem that can be passed over lightly. Society has delegated to professional educators the responsibility of providing for the younger generation the best possible learning activities obtainable. Can you truthfully say your vocational agriculture program is fulfilling this objective for its enrollees?

INCREASE IN COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

The value of scholarships available to undergraduate college students increased almost two and one-half times in a recent five-year period, the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, reports.

A survey showed there were 237,000 scholarships valued at $65.7 million in 1955–56, compared with 124,000 scholarships worth $27 million in 1950–51, when the last previous study was made.

Altogether, scholarships, loans, and campus employment available to college students amounted to more than $144 million in 1955–56.

The survey is intended to help parents, young people, and educators know where various types of financial aid are available, and how much. The data, listed by states and institutions, are reported in a new publication, "Financial Aid for College Students: Undergraduate." A new companion publication, "Financial Aid for College Students: Graduate," provides information about fellowships, loans, and campus employment opportunities for graduate students.

The publication on aid to undergraduates was prepared by Theresa Birch Wilkins, and the one on aid to graduates by Richard C. Mattingly. The authors are research assistants in the Division of Higher Education. Copies of the publications may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, at $1.00 and 50 cents respectively.

Industrial Arts Education in Junior High School

By ROBERT L. WOODWARD*

Many school districts in California are facing new problems because for the first time they are making use of the organizational plan of providing either seventh and eighth grade programs in separate elementary schools or seventh, eighth, and ninth grade programs in junior high schools.

One reason for the use of these types of school organization is to relieve the eight-year elementary school and the four-year high school of problems caused by continued enrollment growth. Through these provisions a school district may use the original elementary school buildings to house the pupils in kindergarten and grades one through six, and the original high school building for a junior high school.

Another reason administrators, board members, and parent groups are interested in such organization is that it makes it possible to provide pupils in the seventh and eighth grades with educational experiences that are of great importance at this stage of their development. Certain of these experiences are given through industrial arts education. Therefore, most seventh and eighth grade and junior high school plants have one or more industrial arts shops.

Administrators of schools thus organized are confronted by many problems in planning and inaugurating good industrial arts programs. They must understand the importance of certain aspects of the industrial arts program for these schools.

In discussing the industrial arts program, the term "junior high school" is used in this article to refer both to the seventh and eighth grade elementary school and to the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade junior high school.

Planning an Industrial Arts Program

In planning an industrial arts program for a particular school, consideration should be given to the potential enrollment of the school. The number and types of shops selected should provide for present needs and future expansion. Attention should be given to the total anticipated enrollment in the shop program, the enrollment in each phase of the program, and to the needs and abilities of the students who will be enrolled.

Basically, an industrial arts program should offer students opportunity for experiences in industrial drawing, electricity, metalworking, and wood-

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working. Activities in these areas may take place in a single shop or may be divided among a number of shops. As the number of shops increases, activities in the areas of graphic arts and handicraft may be introduced.

A plan for the organization of industrial arts programs according to grade level and school enrollment with recommended number and types of shops and the instruction that may be provided follows. The organizational plan is arranged in three columns and each column has an appropriate heading.

The enrollment figures used in column one and the number of shops recommended in column two are based on State-wide average enrollments in industrial arts courses and departments in the public schools of California derived from the reports of secondary school principals, October 1953. The types of shops and the instruction that may be provided in these facilities are consistent with the findings of surveys of present practices and with standards appearing in these California State Department of Education publications: *Suggested Courses of Instruction in Industrial Arts for the Junior High School Level, Suggested Courses of Instruction in Industrial Arts for the Senior High School Level,* and *Guide for Planning and Equipping Industrial Arts Shops in California Schools.*

The "Number and Types of Shops" listed in column two takes into consideration the long-term purpose of each shop and the limitations caused by multiple use of a shop. The third column, "Areas of Instruction," lists courses and elements of courses (activities) that may be offered in the facilities proposed in column two.

RECOMMENDED NUMBER AND TYPES OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS SHOPS AND INSTRUCTION THAT MAY BE PROVIDED FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS AND GRADES SEVEN AND EIGHT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

Total School Enrollment	Number and Types of Shops	Areas of Instruction
To 250	ONE SHOP 1—*Comprehensive general*	Activities or courses: *Industrial drawing, electricity, general metal,* and *general wood*
250– 500	TWO SHOPS 1—*Metal* 2—*Wood*	Courses: *General metal and general wood* (Note: Activities or courses in *industrial drawing* would be provided in the woodshop and activities or courses in *electricity* would be provided in the metal shop. *Handicraft* activities may be introduced in appropriate courses.)

Total School Enrollment	Number and Types of Shops	Areas of Instruction
500– 750	THREE SHOPS 1—*Metal* 2—*Wood* 3—*Industrial drawing*	Courses: *Industrial drawing, general metal,* and *general wood* (Note: Activities or courses in *electricity* would be provided in the metal shop. Appropriate *graphic* arts activities may be introduced in the industrial drawing courses. *Handicraft* activities may be introduced in appropriate courses.)
750–1,000	FOUR SHOPS 1—*Metal* 2—*Wood* 3—*Industrial drawing* 4—*Electricity*	Courses: *Industrial drawing, electricity, general metal,* and *general wood* (Note: Appropriate *graphic arts* activities may be introduced in the industrial drawing courses. *Handicraft* activities may be introduced in appropriate courses.)
1,000–1,250	FIVE SHOPS 1—*Metal* 2—*Wood* 3—*Industrial drawing* 4—*Electricity* 5—*Graphic arts or Handicraft*	Courses: *Industrial drawing, electricity, graphic arts* or *handicrafts, general metal,* and *general wood* (Note: If courses are provided in *graphic arts, handicraft* activities may be introduced in appropriate courses. If courses are provided in *handicrafts,* appropriate *graphic arts* activities may be introduced in the industrial drawing courses.)
1,250–1,500	SIX SHOPS 1—*Metal* 2—*Wood* 3—*Industrial drawing* 4—*Electricity* 5—*Graphic arts* 6—*Handicraft*	Courses: *Industrial drawing, electricity, graphic arts, handicrafts, general metal,* and *general wood*

More detailed information, which appears in California State Department of Education publications, may be helpful in deciding on the areas of industrial arts to be offered, types of activities that may be conducted, layout of shops, and kinds and quantities of equipment. Three of these pub-

lications are *Guide for Industrial Arts Education, Suggested Courses of Instruction in Industrial Arts for the Junior High School Level,* and *Guide for Planning and Equipping Industrial Arts Shops in California Schools.*

Relationship with High School Program

In planning a junior high school industrial arts program, a smooth transition between the junior and senior high school programs merits attention; however, there are other factors that merit even greater consideration. It should be remembered that (1) some students will have an opportunity to enroll in industrial arts courses only in junior high school because their high school majors will limit their opportunity to elect courses on the senior high school level; (2) there is usually a wide range of ability among the students in industrial arts classes in junior high schools because most students are enrolled in these classes; and (3) it is the responsibility of junior high school industrial arts instructors to provide the type of program that will convince the students that further benefits can be derived from senior high school industrial arts courses.

In view of these factors, the junior high school industrial arts program should (1) offer a wide variety of activities in several areas; (2) provide activities that are challenging to all students; and (3) introduce certain kinds of power equipment that will be used more extensively in the senior high school program.

At the junior high school level, certain industrial practices are introduced through demonstrations by the instructor. Usually this is true of welding. Certain activities are shared by the student and the instructor. As an example, in metal casting, the student prepares the mold and the instructor pours the molten metal into the mold.

Suggested Courses of Instruction in Industrial Arts for the Senior High School Level, published by the California State Department of Education, sets forth the suggested areas and activities for the high school program. Though many of the areas and activities are similar to those found in the junior high school program, the experiences at the high school level are more extensive and complex.

Interrelationship of Program

A meaningful relationship between the many activities conducted in industrial arts will exist if the program is well planned. A few suggestions which may assist in bringing about such a relationship follow.

Many of the activities introduced in industrial drawing should have a direct bearing on the activities that take place in the electricity, metalworking, and woodworking areas or shops. This relationship is usually easily developed in a school with a single shop, where one instructor is responsible for the introduction of these four basic industrial arts areas. In schools where industrial drawing is offered as a separate course by an instructor who has no responsibility for the other areas, greater planning is necessary

to make certain that a satisfactory working relationship exists between the drawing course and the other industrial arts courses.

Industrial drawing should emphasize the (1) interpreting of working drawings and blueprints; (2) sketching and designing of objects relating to activities in electricity, metalworking, and woodworking; (3) making of working drawings of certain articles that are constructed in the other industrial arts areas; and (4) planning of the amount of material, cost of material, and procedure of construction of an article.

In schools with more than one shop, the instructors should agree on the standards of craftsmanship for each shop and all should cooperate in maintaining standards. As an example, many of the activities in the electrical course will involve metalworking and woodworking. In such situations the instructor of electricity should maintain the standards of craftsmanship agreed upon for the metalworking and woodworking courses.

In all cases the objects made in the junior high school industrial arts shops should be (1) well-designed and constructed; (2) made of materials of quality; and (3) of practical value for use by the students or other persons.

Providing an adequate number of areas of industrial arts and giving consideration to the relationship of the junior high school program to the high school program and to the interrelationship of the program in the junior high school will assist in the development of an industrial arts program for the junior high school that has purpose and that functions effectively.

SHELL FELLOWSHIPS AGAIN AVAILABLE TO HIGH SCHOOL MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE TEACHERS

Stanford University, with the financial support of the Shell Companies Foundation, is again making available to secondary school chemistry, physics, and mathematics teachers approximately fifty Merit Fellowships which provide an opportunity for advanced study in their teaching fields.

These Fellowships make it possible for a teacher to attend a Stanford University summer session with practically no cost to himself. The Fellowships provide full tuition, board and room; textbook and travel allowances; and a cash stipend of $500.00. The total value of a Fellowship is approximately $1,200.00 for the eight-week summer session.

For full details, write to:

Paul DeH. Hurd, Coordinator,
Shell Merit Fellowship Program
School of Education
Stanford University
Stanford, California

"Ask the Graduates" A Method of Curriculum Improvement

By HARRY M. ALTER*

One of the most neglected and probably one of the most important areas of school operation is the follow-up studies of graduates.

Schools can take a tip from industry and learn something about "consumer acceptance" and "ask the man who owns one." Our products, the young men and women who graduate from our schools, can tell us many things and offer good suggestions about curriculum improvement.

In too many instances all the energy of a faculty is used in administering the current program and no time or money is available for follow-up studies. However, the cost of follow-up is very little and the dividends are great if the study is done on a systematic basis.

In 1941, Beverly Hills High School began a study by interviewing graduates, and has continuously carried it on almost every year. The plan is simple; it consists of personally interviewing some fifty to seventy-five graduates per year, and using a questionnaire so that definite information and suggestions may be obtained. As more than 90 percent of Beverly graduates are in college the year after graduation, the interviews are arranged on the campuses of the colleges, universities, and junior colleges, normally by the institutions involved. If the students are employed or are in some other activity, the interview should be made there. The interviewer should seek the graduate and make the contact by appointment. The purpose of the interview is explained and the graduate is asked to fill out some replies to questions and give some quick evaluations on a check sheet. Afterwards, a friendly visit is carried on and some general comments and impressions are received by the interrogator. The visit should not be a hurried one and should be made by a senior counselor or administrator. Arrangements should be made at least two weeks in advance. Very few changes have been made in the Beverly questions during the last ten years. The reports should be summarized each year or two and prepared in permanent form.

Copies of the reports should go back to the institutions which have cooperated in making the studies possible. It is beneficial to them to have the information. On two occasions, serious faults in the programs of two of our major universities were brought to our attention. In one case, the mathematics required in the beginning physics class at a university was not included in the normal high school program and, as a result, normally successful students were having difficulty. The university was notified and the situation corrected. Likewise, the senior solid geometry course at Beverly was modified to include an introduction to calculus, spherical trigonometry,

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and analytical geometry. In the second case, a lack of coordination of the requirements of a major school of a university and the high school offerings was noted. By improving the communications between the institutions a better understanding was developed.

Benefits that can come to the institutions of higher learning as well as from industry as a result of studies of this character will more than offset the extra work necessary in arranging the interviews.

The questions asked indicate the type of information wanted. Here are some of the questions and a summary of the answers that have come from the Beverly studies:

What do you like best about the college, university, or junior college?

All the "like best" answers have centered around the social aspects of college life. The newly-found freedom usually comes first and the friendliness of students and faculty consistently placed second. Surroundings, campus, and living situations rate high.

Do you feel you have chosen the school best for you?

Beverly students are found in as many as fifty institutions of higher learning the fall after graduation. Much effort is spent by the counselors and others in order to encourage and direct students into making a good choice. All but six of the last 100 students interviewed thought they had made a good choice; and not all of the six who said "no" were entirely dissatisfied with their selections.

Beverly is happy to report that their graduates are generally enthusiastic about the college and university programs. They like their professors and the academic atmosphere as well as the freedom and social life. They learn much from the living groups and welcome the opportunity for leadership. Students who are not entirely satisfied usually have personal problems of some sort.

What activities are you in?

Dozens of activities have been listed. The consensus is that it is not difficult to get into activities and it is up to the student to make his choice. In only a few instances have students been found who did not heed the warning, given while in high school—the danger of too many activities.

In general, do you feel satisfied with the training offered at Beverly Hills High School in preparing you for college or university work?

Over the years, the students have indicated that they were satisfied, but the "yes" replies during recent years are much more definite than when the survey was first started. The answers from the later years would make any school swell with pride as they have been almost all "yes" with some "yes with emphasis." A few have had qualifying statements, such as: "Yes, except for English;" or: "Yes, except for foreign language."

At this point the survey changes to another approach and searches for answers that will indicate strong and weak points of the curriculum.

What do you suggest in order to improve the curriculum at Beverly Hills High School?

Typical among the many answers are:

More compositions in English
More note-taking
More lecturing
Four years of English and four years of history
More essay tests
More research in the library
Make work harder and more intense
More "How to Study" and "How to Budget Time" and less stress on grades
Emphasize importance of homework and tests—and so on

No one has said anything about too much work, too much homework, or not enough leisure time in high school.

What do you consider your most valuable high school subject?

English has always come first, with history, mathematics, science, and languages following in order. Typing is very high on the list and at times has come next to English. Almost every subject offered appears at some time.

What high school subject do you consider was least valuable?

When the study first started over fifteen years ago, subjects were found that appeared too often as "least valuable." Some subjects obviously have less carry-over value than others. During subsequent years, the curriculum has been consolidated, and now no definite pattern of "least" valuable subjects can be found. Almost all subjects appear somewhere in the list but the word "none" is stated most frequently.

What high school activity do you consider was most valuable? Least valuable?

Sports and student government lead the list of "most valuable," with music, journalism, and honor clubs following. It should be observed that sports and student government have a high participation.

Some of the "least valuable" activities have ceased to exist. It is well to know the activities in a school that are considered least valuable. If an activity is struggling for existence and is considered "least valuable," it is just as well to let it go.

> *The high school curriculum is so full of subjects and activities that we must search out the weaker ones and discontinue them.*

What high school subject do you wish you had taken?

A general trend is noted throughout these replies and they all point to more advanced work in languages, mathematics, and science. The fourth year of English appears quite frequently. Ancient and modern history with cultural subjects such as music appreciation and art, are found in this list. There is strong evidence here in favor of the standard college preparatory course with advanced work in the academic areas.

What advice would you give to a high school sophomore?

The sophomore year was selected because it is the transition year. It is when the university entrance requirements become quite real, and it is also the year of greatest confusion and of the student's greatest physical growth and development. The temptation to "go with the gang" and the "school isn't important anyway" attitudes are strongest at this time.

A few of the many suggestions to the tenth graders include:

Complete all requirements
Learn how to take good notes
Learn how to study
Learn how to write compositions
Keep with one foreign language
Don't take things the easy way
Learn to budget your time
Take high school seriously
Learn to outline
Learn how to take examinations, etc.

In other words, work harder. At no point has the sophomore been advised to "take it easy" or "enjoy yourself; work is unimportant." It is valuable for a teacher to have direct quotes from recent graduates. In many cases a direct quote from these students is more effective than preaching by the teacher.

Do you feel that you have been adequately prepared to meet the competition with graduates from other schools?

Of the last 100 interviewed, ninety-nine said yes and one said no. Ten and fifteen years ago, there were many more exceptions.

Upon entering college had you received adequate training in: (a) note-taking, (b) public speaking, (c) writing term papers, (d) taking examinations, and (e) how to study?

The affirmative answers to these questions have been tabulated on a percentage basis so that trends can be noted. For example, at one school, note-taking rated 57 percent in 1948. After establishing some instruction in note-taking in the social studies and English courses, it showed a score of 75 percent in 1955. By following the same general follow-up procedure of perfecting the class instruction, writing term papers has changed from

57 percent to a high of 91 percent; how to study, from 36 percent to 60 percent; and taking examinations, from 50 percent to 70 percent. During the same time, public speaking showed little change. The reason can be explained by the fact that speech rated fairly high in the first survey and is not used as extensively as the other skills.

Course and activity evaluation

One of the most important pages of the questionnaire is the check sheet which asks the student to check the value of a list of thirty-five high school subjects and activities on a scale with 0 equaling no value, and 10 equaling great value.

English has consistently scored the highest and has a 1955 score of 86 percent. Typing scored 88 percent in 1955 but over the years has not scored quite as high as English.

In 1954, driver education and driver training were added and the first scored 69 percent, and the second, 90 percent.

Fifteen years ago, some activities were found with low scores. After careful study, most of these have been discontinued.

This year, the complete list of State requirements has been added, including alcohol and narcotics, conservation, fire prevention, first aid and water safety, manners and morals, and public safety and accident prevention instruction. There are not sufficient data to give a report but in spite of the fact that the State requirements are being diligently met, the preliminary results appear somewhat discouraging. In some instances students do not recall that they have had the instruction. This is an area for further investigation.

Upon entering college were you experienced in the following:

A. Getting acquainted with new students?
B. Using good judgment in choosing clubs, fraternities and sororities?
C. Budgeting your time?

A and B seemed to cause no trouble and show no special trends. C, budgeting time, shows a fairly low score and not much improvement. This area has probably been given the least amount of attention in the classrooms at Beverly. Perhaps some definite plan can be evolved in order to train students in the art of "budgeting time."

In general, the Beverly graduates are successful in their college and university programs and are grateful to the high school that prepared them. Many felt they should have made a better high school record but blamed themselves rather than their high school for their shortcomings.

Teachers who seemed severe at the time are now praised because they forced their students to achieve. In no case was there any complaint about the school program being too hard or too demanding. Not a word about "too much homework."

The attitude and cooperation of the students is excellent. They draw

on their own experiences for an honest and sincere evaluation of their high school program and show a keen desire to aid in the study.

Following are some of the direct quotes from the interviews:

"High school tests are based on facts; university tests are based on thinking."

"Take chemistry and physics in high school."

"Take 4 years of a foreign language in high school."

"College prep. students should be given a course and say, here it is!"

"More help on requirements of colleges within the university."

"Require typing."

"Four years of math."

"English in high school excellent."

"Feel that the student with low grades is discouraged; should be encouraged."

"Not enough emphasis given to the importance of having the student budget his time."

"Not enough history required in high school."

"Personal problems, interesting but not valuable."

"Wish I had taken chemistry."

"Reason more students do not take chemistry in high school is fear."

"Not enough theme writing."

"Child care should be required of all boys as well as girls."

"More two-hour tests."

"More reasoning in mathematics."

"Pound in grammar in 9th and 10th grades and essays in 12th grade."

"Require ancient history in high school."

"Instruct in increasing reading speed."

A study of this type is of little value unless use is made of the findings. Formal presentations are made to the Board of Education and to the various departments of the high school. It is helpful to the Board in that it gives the members an idea as to how their policies have been working out in actual practice as well as giving them suggestions regarding future planning. In departmental meetings, individual teachers have opportunity to question and discuss the procedures and recommendations. Over the years some excellent suggestions have been incorporated into the curriculum.

A valuable by-product develops in the community. The local newspaper finds interesting news stories in the study. The students who have been interviewed return to report with further information. Teachers sometimes find quotations of value, that can be used in advising students. Counselors use the information in guidance conferences and various parts of the report give interesting and constructive information to parents of the community.

What's Happening in California Secondary Schools

By WILLIAM N. McGOWAN*

What's Happening in Junior High Schools

Smedley Junior High School, Santa Ana, is a new junior high school typical of many being built throughout the State. Here are some "vital statistics." Smedley was built for 1,500 students. There are twenty-seven classrooms, three art rooms, two home economics rooms, two science rooms, a band room, a music room, a speech room, and seven shops. The plant also includes a library, an auditorium seating 750, an administration building, a cafeteria, and a gymnasium.

The school day begins at 8:30 and ends at 3:10 with a lunch period of 50 minutes. The day is divided into six periods of 50 minutes each. In the seventh grade a student has the same teacher for English, social studies, and reading. In the eighth grade each student has English and social studies with one teacher.

Smedley opened in February 1956, with 400 students and now has over 1,000 students. There are forty-one credentialed people on the staff, a full time nurse, three secretaries, six custodians, and two gardeners.

Construction cost was about $10.85 per square foot, excepting the gym and cafeteria. The gym and cafeteria were built on separate contract at about $12.50 per square foot.

What's Happening in 4 Year and Senior High Schools

Beverly Hills High School does many interesting things. Two items of particular interest concern the mailing of final grades and fall program schedules. Along with final grades, which are mailed in June, is sent a brochure titled "Our June Graduates Say . . ." This little brochure gives succinct and pertinent information on matters pertaining to college entrance. It points up problems and gives some helpful hints to students and parents.

Another brochure, "How Important is Your Record to You," is mailed out with student programs in August. This mailing includes a complete schedule of the student's individual program-courses, room numbers, and teachers. Reasons for this mailing, according to Kenneth L. Peters, principal, are: to get all program changes and program adjustments out of the way prior to the opening of school (a counselor is on duty during August to facilitate this); to get off to a smooth start on the first day of school, which becomes "as productive as the twentieth day."

* Executive Secretary, California Association of Secondary School Administrators.

The "Record" brochure says "You make your record—we only keep it," and deals with the type of record kept, how it's used, and emphasizes the fact that "to study is important."

The brochures are an attempt to establish another meaningful contact between school and home stressing the points important to communicate to students and parents.

* * *

Escalon Union High School employs a plan that seems to work well in establishing controls concerning on-campus and near-campus student driving. The program calls for a form to be completed by each student who drives a car to and from school, which is then filed with the school administration. The form is a request for permission to drive an automobile to and from school. It carries the name of the proposed driver, or the name of each driver in cases where more than one student from a family drives. Space is provided to state reasons for the request.

The form also includes the following:

It is understood and agreed that:

1. A definite and identified parking space will be assigned for the car on the school grounds.
2. The car will be parked in the assigned space immediately upon arrival at school and will remain so parked until used to return home.
3. Any necessary deviation from this procedure will be by written request of the parent or guardian for each incidence of deviation, or by special arrangement with the school.
4. Failure of the student to comply with this regulation is reason for suspension from school until such time as the student and parents, or guardian, agree to comply; or failing agreement, expulsion from school.

.....

Signature of Parent or Guardian

.....

Signature of Student

FOR SCHOOL USE ONLY

Date received ....., 19.....

Disposition: Permission Granted..... Parking Space Assigned: No.....

Permission Refused..... Reason: .....

Car	1	2	3	4
Make				
Body Style				
Year Model				
Color				
License No.				
Registered Owner				

What's Happening in Junior Colleges

The Siskiyou Joint Junior College District has called as its superintendent, M. J. Greenshields, who has been active in junior college circles in the state of Washington. A district office has been established at 1243 South Main Street, Yreka.

* * *

The Foothills Junior College District, serving the Palo Alto-Sunnyvale-Los Altos area, has employed A. C. Stevens, Jr., as Acting Superintendent. Mr. Stevens is superintendent of the Fremont Union High School District, Sunnyvale. The junior college district office has been opened at 176 Second Avenue, Los Altos.

* * *

Pasadena City College, Chaffey College, Bakersfield College, Riverside College, and *East Los Angeles Junior College* have all received provisional approval from the State Board of Nurse Examiners for the newly authorized two-year Registered Nurse training program. The State Board has adopted, for the present, three policies in connection with these two-year programs:

1. Provision should be made for two full academic years and two summer sessions.
2. The ratio between class time and clinical time should be about 1 to 4.
3. A maximum of ten students is allowable for each nurse-supervisor in the clinical practice.

Current Events and Materials in Mathematics

By G. W. BROWN*

Two recent trends, although entirely unrelated, are currently producing innovations in both the mathematics curriculum and in mathematics teaching materials. These two trends are (a) the concentrated efforts of industry to provide practical experiences for in-service mathematics teachers, and (b) an emphasis on and integration of recreation materials into the mathematics offerings. These two trends will be examined here separately.

The Participation of Mathematics Teachers in Industry

Planned programs whereby mathematics teachers are taking an inside look at the uses made by industry of material taught in the schools have sprung up in several communities. From this participation teachers have developed demonstrations, illustrations, materials, and anecdotes which make mathematics courses interesting and functional. These programs have assumed several forms. Let us examine the three most common.

1. *Summer Employment of Teachers by Industry*

The employment of teachers by industry during out-of-school hours was examined and discussed in detail at the Industry-Education Conference held July 7–13, 1957 at Lake Arrowhead, California. The conference was sponsored by the National Academy of Sciences and Hughes Aircraft Company in cooperation with the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the University of California. Here, at the first meeting of its kind in California, representatives from industry and education met to evaluate and discuss programs of cooperation between industry and education already under way and investigate opportunities for new ones. Reports from the conference reveal well organized programs operating in Los Angeles, Detroit, Oklahoma City, Dallas, Atlanta, Washington, Pittsburgh, and St. Louis to name only a few. Since a description of all of these is not possible here, the program at Los Angeles will be described as illustrative.

The Los Angeles School System employs a full-time person to coordinate activities involving both education and industry. His job includes contacting local industries to identify jobs which can be handled in the summer months by mathematics or science teachers. He then surveys teachers to find those suitable for the positions. During the past summer forty-seven teachers were placed in summer jobs. At the end of the summer these teachers met togther in workshop situations to share

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experiences and develop curriculum materials for the schools based on the newly discovered applications in industry.

The program, originally established as part of a long-range solution to the critical scientific and technical manpower shortage, has been well received by teachers and industrial leaders alike.

2. *Resource Personnel from Industry for School Use*

A variation of the involvement of teachers in industrial positions is that of industry supplying resource personnel for school use. This practice, which was also considered at the Arrowhead Conference, is used extensively in eastern and midwestern cities. The usual practice is for an industry or corporation to designate a scientist or engineer as a full-time resource person for use by a school district. This resource person can be called in to answer technical questions, to perform lecture-demonstrations, to bring materials, or to arrange for field trips or excursions. Thus a particular school might have available a physicist, chemist, electrical engineer, or mathematician to be used to illustrate practical work of high school mathematics or science concepts whenever the need occurs.

3. *Scholarship and Fellowship Programs*

A third variation of teacher participation in industry is utilized in some fellowship and scholarship programs. In these programs teachers are brought together, usually at colleges or universities for concentrated work in science and mathematics courses as well as curriculum and methods courses. Included in most of these programs are contacts with industries and research centers. A brief description of the Shell Merit Fellowship Program as it developed at Stanford University will illustrate the nature of the experience.

The Shell program, designed for mathematics and science teachers, provides experiences in the subject matter areas, the methodology of teaching, and practical applications in industry. An integral part of this program is the visitation of industrial and research centers where teachers get a first-hand view of the uses made of mathematics and science. These visits are well planned, half-day excursions which include demonstrations, talks by scientists, and opportunities to observe the actual manufacture or development of materials.

Since the number of such field trips is limited in any summer program, the practical uses of mathematics and science are further illustrated by bringing to the group key people from industry, research centers, or business who explain via lecture, film, slides, or charts, many practical applications of technical information.

The programs described here are illustrative only of several programs which have developed throughout the United States within the past three

years. Although taking several forms, it seems apparent that all such endeavors are endeavoring to:

1. Develop in teachers a sensitiveness to the practicality of mathematics and science.
2. Emphasize the need in our society for technical and scientific manpower, and
3. Provide teachers with information, materials, and the desire to guide interested and able pupils into the technical fields.

The Use of Recreational Materials in the Mathematics Curriculum

Mathematics teachers have long used puzzles, number oddities, and mathematical recreations for specific purposes in mathematics classes. They were found to be especially useful for maintaining attention during the "tension-filled" days prior to vacations or key athletic contests. This spotty incidental use of recreational materials is currently giving way to a more widespread use, even to the point of integrating recreations and puzzles into each unit of work. The increased use of what used to be incidental materials is justified by the need to develop positive attitudes toward and interests in the field of mathematics. Also, with the current emphasis on the meaning theory, including understandings of the fundamentals of the number system, teachers found that puzzles and recreations provided insights that traditional materials did not.

The increased interest in recreational materials is reflected by the many publications of books, pamphlets, and instructional materials during the past few years. Since these are generally reasonably priced (many are available in paper backs), teachers can compile a library of puzzle books for classroom use with comparative ease.

A bibliography of recreational books and instructional materials is included below. This list, although including most of the recent publications, is not intended to be complete; however, it will illustrate the extensive publications in the area since 1952.

Bibliography—Recreations in Mathematics

Arithmetic Can Be Fun, Munro Leaf. Philadelphia: J. P. Lippincott Co., 1949.

Book of Modern Puzzles, The. Gerald L. Kaufman. New York: Dover Publications, 1954.

Enjoyment of Mathematics, The. Hans Rademacher and Otto Toeplitz. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1957.

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Fun With Figures. J. A. H. Hunter. New York: Oxford University Press, 1956.

Fun With Mathematics. Jerome S. Meyer. Cleveland. World Publishing Co., 1952.

Magic and Oddities of Numbers, The. William F. Gilles. New York: Vantage Press, 1953.

Math-e-magic. Royal V. Heath. New York: Dover Publications, 1953.

Mathematical Excursions. Helen A. Merrill. New York: Dover Publications, 1954.

Mathematical Puzzles. Geoffrey Mott-Smith. New York: Dover Publications, 1954.

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Mathematician's Delight. W. W. Sawyer. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1956.

Mathematics and the Imagination: Edward Kasner. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1940.

Mathematics, Magic, and Mystery. Martin Gardner. New York: Dover Publications, 1956.

Practical Classroom Procedures for Enriching Arithmetic. Herbert F. Spitzer. St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company, 1956.

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Puzzle, Quiz, and Stunt Fun. Jerome Meyer. New York: Dover Publications, 1956.

Riddles in Mathematics. Eugene P. Northrop. New York: Van Nostrand, 1944.

Instructional Materials

Optical Illusions. Louis Brandes. Portland, Maine: J. Weston Walch, 1956.

A Collection of Cross Number Puzzles. Louis Brandes. Portland, Maine: J. Weston Walch, Publisher, 1956.

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Symposium

THE INTERNSHIP IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Introduction to the Symposium

By JAMES C. STONE*

The internship concept of a teacher education program is somewhat unique as it is being carried out in California. Therefore in this symposium, first it is necessary to define the concept and to characterize it. This has been done in the first article, "The Internship Concept—Its Essential Elements."

As this internship concept is being applied by ten California colleges and universities (Claremont Graduate School, College of the Pacific, Dominican, Immaculate Heart, Mt. St. Mary's, San Diego State, San Francisco State, Stanford, University of California, University of Southern California) and in approximately sixty school districts, it is a new idea to many teachers and administrators. For this reason we have attempted in this issue to describe various ways school districts and institutions, working as full partners, have organized their programs. This has been covered through a review of particular phases of the programs at Claremont Graduate School, University of California, San Diego State College, and through the reaction of the Oakland City Schools after two years of experience employing intern teachers.

An important contribution of internship programs is what we in teacher education are learning about how to improve teacher education generally. Alice Siemon's article is an indication of what one internship program has contributed in this direction.

Of course, the "proof of the pudding is in the tasting"—in this case, the frank and forthright reaction of those who are experiencing and have experienced an internship teacher education program. Even those who question the idea that internship programs are *another* pathway to the preparation of teachers will be impressed by the enthusiasm expressed by intern Joanne Lafler and extern Carl Garsky.

Taken together, the nine articles in the symposium present a strong argument in support of the internship concept of teacher education. Although conceived originally as a temporary answer to the teacher shortage, the internship concept probably will remain as a permanent contribution to the idea of *multiple programs of teacher education within each institution*—varying paths to teaching competence which appeal to different ages and kinds of students, with different needs and varying degrees of readiness for professional training.

* Director of Teacher Education, University of California, and Coordinator of Symposium.

The Internship Concept of Teacher Education—Its Essential Elements

By JAMES C. STONE*

In the article "I Am An Intern," Joanne Lafler describes the typical reaction of a group of teachers when the word internship is mentioned: "What is It and Who's an Intern?" It seems appropriate, therefore, to begin the symposium with a definition of what is meant by this new concept of teacher education.

Definition

"An Internship Program is a coordinated program for the preparation of teachers which includes professional courses integrated with observation, participation, student teaching, and an *internship period*—the latter being an internship program's most important and distinctive feature. The defining characteristics of the internship period are:

a. Full responsibility for a classroom during a full year (or a major portion thereof).
b. Cooperative responsibility between the teacher education institution and the school district.
c. Payment of salary by the district.[1]

With this definition in mind, it should be pointed out that the internship concept of teacher education is *not* a substitute for present programs of teacher education. Rather it is *another* path to teacher education, one designed for more mature students. As stated in the definition, the internship period is *not* a substitute for supervised teaching, but rather a supplement to and proper extension of such an experience.

In-Service versus Pre-Service Education

In the usual program of teacher education, there has evolved a carefully drawn distinction between in-service and pre-service education; the former being the primary responsibility of the school district, the latter being the primary responsibility of the college or university. The internship concept reverses these traditional roles. As noted in the four articles which immediately follow, in the internship concept of teacher education the school district also has some *primary* responsibilities in the pre-service program. These include recruiting candidates, selecting and evaluating them, and providing summer schools in which interns may observe, participate, and student teach.

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[1] *What's Right with Teacher Education?* A Report of the Santa Barbara Workshop on Teacher Education. California Teachers Association, p. 8.

In just the reverse manner, the college or university has some *primary* responsibilities in the in-service program. These include responsibility for the success of the internship period, supervision to supplement the resources of the school district, and provision of courses and seminars geared directly to the needs and experiences of the interns during their period of internship teaching. In large measure, the joint planning of district and college personnel involved here—focused as it is in helping the individual over the rough spots of his first exposure to full-time teaching—contributes to the low rate of mortality in this program in contrast to the higher drop-out rate among first year teachers generally.

Assumptions

Undergirding the internship concept, with its reversal of the traditional roles of college and school districts, are some assumptions and beliefs on which the concept is based. Some of the more significant ones follow:

1. A teacher should be a special kind of *person* and districts and institutions working together can make this determination prior to the candidate's investing in a program of professional training.
2. A teacher should be a liberally educated person. An acceptable symbol of this is an A.B. degree uninterrupted by professional courses. This belief was expressed many years ago by John Stuart Mill: "Men are men before they are lawyers or physicians, or manufacturers; and if you make them capable and sensible men, they will make themselves capable and sensible lawyers or physicians." To this list, should be added; "or teachers."
3. Professional education is a graduate function of graduate schools and graduate departments of education. Only in this way can be gained the time blocks necessary for the extensive laboratory experiences required in the internship plan.
4. Pre-service education can develop only the bare minimum competencies in a prospective teacher to enable him to begin to practice in the classroom. Additional competencies and the finishing process belong properly to the in-service education program.
5. We learn by doing, or in this case, we learn to teach by teaching. Classes of children thus become the core of the intern's learning experience, and education theory is taught at the time of need and at the point where it can be applied in practice.
6. We tend to teach as we ourselves were taught. Therefore equal attention in theory courses and seminars must be devoted to *how* the material is presented as well as *what* is presented.
7. Teacher education is a team responsibility which involves: academic departments and education departments within an institution; instructors and supervisors in the preparing institution; and personnel from colleges and school districts.

Characteristics

A program which is true to our definition and which is based on these assumptions will have certain unique characteristics. These include:

1. The intern assumes full charge of a classroom by becoming an employee of a school district on a regular contract basis. A special pilot provisional credential issued by the State Board of Education permits employment without certification of need. (This is a special credential issued to those engaged in experimental programs.) The prospective intern is placed in a teaching position as the result of joint action by the local district and the college or university concerned.
2. The intern is paid by the district.
3. Teams of instructors teach and supervise the intern from the beginning of the program through its completion at the end of the second summer.
4. Responsibility for supervision is shared jointly by the district and the college or university.
5. The internship program features college-directed seminars which are problem-centered, and which are integral to the total program.
6. Provision is made for the continued evaluation of the intern even after he has completed his professional training and is granted a regular credential.
7. This is an experimental program receiving continuous evaluation.[2]

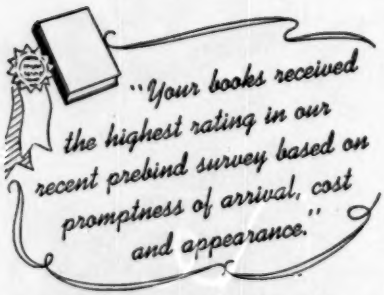
The Future

Internship programs of teacher education seem to be here to stay. They are a potent stimulus to rethinking and modification of regular programs. They are influencing the study of credentials being carried on by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and the California Council on Teacher Education. They are providing a path into teaching through which each year several hundred able men and women become teachers — men and women who otherwise would not have become teachers. They are proving to be a ready answer to the shortage of personnel in the most critically short fields—elementary teaching, secondary teaching of science, mathematics, homemaking, English, and girls' physical education. They are providing an effective bridge between pre-service and in-service education, and a first line of defense against the high rate of mortality during the first year of full-time classroom responsibility. They are providing research opportunities in teacher education. They are bringing the public schools deeper into teacher education. They are giving new emphasis to the role of laboratory

[2] Guidelines for the development of an internship program have been worked out by a committee at the Teacher Education Workshop held at the University of California, Berkeley, August 25–31, 1957, and are published in the report of the Workshop, *Teacher Education—What It Could Be,* California Teachers Association, October 1957.

experiences in the education of teachers. They are providing a new acceptance for teacher education among academic department colleagues.

Internship programs are growing — institutions are expanding their present internship programs, and others are planning to inaugurate new programs. The future development and expansion of the internship concept of teacher education lies not so much in the laps of college people as it lies in the hands of the profession—particularly school administrators. *The answer depends on the extent to which school administrators are sold on the idea, provide internship placements, and make available summer school student teaching opportunities.*



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A New Approach to the Recruitment, Selection, and Induction of Teachers

By MALCOLM P. DOUGLASS*

Claremont Graduate School and a number of southern California school districts have been engaged in an experimental teacher education program which reverses many of the procedures which typify the usual teacher education program. Believing first, that recruitment and selection for teaching should be a joint function of college and public school units, admission into the program and continued participation in it is determined cooperatively by the Graduate School and school district personnel. Believing second, that entrance into the profession should *follow,* not precede, proven satisfactory performance in actual classroom situations, the college has instituted an internship experience in which students teach under joint supervision of school district and college for a full year. Believing third, that professional preparation should be a shared opportunity as well as a responsibility, the college and cooperating school districts have worked out a program in which each participates in the training of the future teacher. From the first phase of the program to the last, the successful conduct of the program is dependent upon the quality of cooperation existing between the Graduate School and the cooperating school district.

The program consists of four segments: (1) a spring observation-participation period conducted for the most part in the sponsoring school district; (2) a summer curriculum study period combined with an assignment in a public school summer session class as an *assistant teacher*; (3) a year's *teaching internship* assignment in which the participant is paid a salary by the school district and in which he acts as a full-time teacher on a school staff; (4) a final summer session of curriculum study. All instruction is conducted at the graduate level and is organized around the seminar plan. Students stay in a group. Instructors come to the group to conduct seminar studies in their fields of specialization. Continuity throughout the year is provided by permanent assignment of two faculty members at the Graduate School and by school district assignment of a member of their staff to oversee the conduct of the program in the school district. The object of all instruction is to provide those experiences which will lead to teaching competency in the sponsoring school district.

Personal qualifications for the Internship Program—Candidates for this program must hold a bachelor's degree. They must have had little or no prior work in professional education. The scholarly emphasis in the undergraduate years must be in the academic fields.

A person wishing to present himself as a prospective member of the

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Internship Program must meet two major requirements. First, he must be sponsored by a cooperating school district. Second, he must gain admission to the Claremont Graduate School.

How does a school district enter into a cooperative relationship with the Claremont Graduate School for the purposes of this program? First, the district indicates its intention to the Graduate School and makes whatever arrangements need to be made within the local district. Second, the district finds qualified candidates and recommends them to the college for participation in the program. Third, the district agrees to work with the college and its faculty in the training program.

Sources of candidates and recruitment practices—The Internship Program provides an opportunity for school districts to tap resources of teaching talent heretofore untouched. Settled members of the school community, bypassed in normal recruitment procedures, become rich resources for public school faculties. Also, the large number of students graduating from colleges and universities in the liberal arts and sciences find the program gives them an opportunity to secure the kind of education they value most highly and at the same time to enter teaching through the internship avenue.

To these students, many of whom subscribe, wrongly or rightly, to the belief that education courses are to be avoided at all costs, the Internship Program makes sense. It should be added, parenthetically, that college professors in the liberal arts and sciences encourage their students to enter teaching through the Internship Program because they, too, can see a practical, feasible, and reasonable sequence of professional preparation in such a program.

The cooperating school districts contact these sources of teaching personnel through a variety of channels. Some persons interested in teaching who qualify for the program present themselves at district offices and are recruited by personnel officers. Campaigns conducted by school district administrators and teachers, and others who are acquainted with the program, result in securing no small number of candidates. Such civic groups as the League of Women Voters, American Association of University Women, and the Parent-Teacher Association, are usually contacted by school principals and district office personnel. Another particularly rich resource has been members of the program itself and people who have had some close contact with its operation. They have encouraged a number of their own friends to apply. Newspaper articles, radio announcements, etc., have proven to be productive avenues for securing the kind of people who can qualify for this program.

Selection practices in cooperating school districts—Each school district employs its own procedures and techniques for selecting candidates for the Internship Program. These are usually the same as those used in selecting beginning regularly credentialled teachers. The district attempts to assess the individual's personal, social, and academic qualifications for teaching on the same basis as one who is already certified. Evidence is sought indicating that the applicant possesses those attitudes and interests believed to be con-

ducive to teaching success in the same manner as if he were a regularly credentialled person applying for his first teaching position. The professional knowledge which a certificated person should evidence is, of course, not required. The school district, in cooperation with the Graduate School, will join together over the period of the program — approximately sixteen months—to develop this competency. As one assistant superintendent in a cooperating school district put it, "We can give them the techniques and professional know-how, but we cannot do much for personalities and attitudes which so often stand in the way of teaching success. Through this program, we select only those people who have the personal attributes we think important in teaching. We work with the college on those things with which we can reasonably expect to have success."

In some districts, teacher-administrator teams interview prospective candidates for the program. In others, screening and recommendation to the school board of candidates is largely the function of the administrator-supervisory staff. Whichever system is employed in the district with respect to regularly credentialled teachers is the one which applies to candidates for the Internship Program.

Sponsorship of selectees—When the cooperating school district identifies a person believed to have the requisite background and potential for success in the Internship Program, the Claremont Graduate School is informed of this fact. A letter is written by the district superintendent, or other person placed in charge of the program, to the Graduate School announcing the willingness of the district to sponsor the candidate in the Internship Program.

Such sponsorship is, in effect, a statement of willingness on the part of the cooperating school district to participate actively in the pre-credential professional preparation of the individual they have selected for the program. It entails providing observation-participation experiences in the school district in the late spring, providing a summer school teaching assistant opportunity where feasible, arranging for such additional supervision as may be needed during the Internship year, and generally assuming an active interest in and concern for the individual's development as a classroom teacher. It carries with it, also, the assumption that judgments concerning the adequacy of the candidate will be determined *jointly* by the Graduate School and the cooperating school district and that recommendation for certification will result when both agree the candidate is qualified for full-fledged professional service.

Origins of the program—The Internship Program involves the payment of regular tuition by participants. It is in its first year of operation in this respect. Actually, however, it is a direct outgrowth of the Claremont College Teacher Education Project which began early in 1954 and was financed by a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation. It is to be noted that a small, private institution finds it feasible to operate an Internship Program on a tuition basis without recourse to special funds or grants.

How school districts evaluate the program—In the face of the serious shortage of competent teachers, school districts participating in this program look to it as an additional source heretofore largely untapped. They welcome the opportunity to add to their teaching staffs more mature personalities than come to them on the average through the regular teacher education channels. They value the opportunity to work with the Graduate School in *preparing teachers for service in their own district.* They find that persons entering teaching service through this program tend to be permanent additions to their staff, for many of these people are already established members of the community before entering the program. They like to secure teachers with broad liberal arts and science backgrounds. In addition to the broader and more comprehensive academic background, a majority of the members of the Internship Program bring prior experiences in business, industry, public service, and the like. These "worldly experiences" enrich and broaden in a desirable direction the instructional experiences provided youngsters in their classrooms.

How the Interns evaluate the program—For the recent graduate, the Internship Program provides a practical and feasible way of entering the teaching profession without compromising other educational objectives. For more mature participants, the program offers a means by which a desired goal can be reached where conventional teacher education programs require unreasonable time and monetary commitments. Within the structure of seminars and the teaching internship students find the intellectual climate stimulating and practical. An esprit pervades the Internship group rarely seen in other educational endeavors. The immediacy of the need to learn and the sharing of common problems and goals leads to stimulating seminar sessions. College faculty members and school district personnel who have participated in the program consistently make the comment that they have rarely come across a more eager, interesting, hardworking group of people.

The experience of the Claremont Graduate School and the cooperating school districts indicates the Internship Program provides a successful avenue for the recruitment, selection, preparation, and the induction of teachers into the profession.[1] It is not suggested that this is the *only* program by which teachers may or should be educated. It is believed, however, that a program such as this attracts the kind of person who, with careful preparation, can become a creative and successful teacher. The Claremont Graduate School has always proceeded on the assumption that a broad background is to be preferred over an undergraduate program in which the student is required to major in professional education and in which the scope and depth of scholarly, academic inquiry is necessarily limited.

[1] Southern California school districts sponsoring people in this program, with number of Interns: Charter Oak, 2; Covina, 5; Claremont, 2; El Monte, 2; Glendora, 3; Hudson, 2; Tustin, 1; Ontario, 4; Rialto, 1; San Bernardino, 1.

The School District's Role—Planning and Supervision

By MANFRED H. SCHRUPP*

Twenty-one new junior high school teachers in the San Diego city schools are participating this year in an experimental internship program operated cooperatively by the school district and San Diego State College. These twenty-one—thirteen men and eight women—are all relatively mature people who earned the bachelor's degree some time in the past in fields other than teaching. Since then they have followed such pursuits as banking, business, sales, secretarial, social service. Several have been housewives, and some now have children of school age. None would now be teaching except for this experimental program.

This experimental program is actually an extension of a program for recruiting and training elementary teachers initiated in 1954. Now in its fourth year, this elementary program has recruited 125 young adults into teaching service. One hundred four of these are still teaching in the San Diego City Schools—a remarkably high rate of retention. Of the remaining twenty-one, a number are teaching elsewhere. Although this enterprise has been essentially self-supporting, a modest grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education has permitted some enrichment of the program and has provided for systematic evaluation of its success. It has also furnished funds for intensive recruitment efforts, which not only provided applications from which candidates for the program have been selected, but also helped sell the teaching profession to the community.

The interns now in the junior high school program were selected after careful screening, first by the Personnel Department of the school district, and then through the regular procedures for admission to teacher education as established by the college. In addition to the usual selection criteria, each candidate needed sufficient subject-matter background to qualify for a junior high school credential after a college program devoted largely to professional education. Fourteen of the interns qualified in the areas of English and social studies, and seven in science and mathematics.

The program for this intern group started in the spring of 1957, with an extension course designed to provide an overview of the role of the school in the social order, and the nature of the learner, with special emphasis on the junior high school years. During the first six weeks of the following summer session, attention was focused on the processes of instruction and measurement. This work was conducted largely in one of the local high schools, where observation and participation could become an integral part

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of the course. During the next three weeks, the interns worked specifically in preparation for their fall teaching assignments.

Currently the interns are teaching full time under the supervision of carefully selected advisory teachers, each of whom typically has as his sole assignment the guidance of four interns. They are also visited periodically by a staff member from the college, and also by a member of the school's supervisory staff, specifically assigned to help coordinate the program. Three units of student teaching credit will be granted during both the fall and spring semesters. An evening course in the spring, with primary emphasis on guidance and learning, and a final-six weeks session during the summer will complete the prescribed program of twenty-seven units, and qualify the interns for regular junior high school credentials. Some will also have completed the requisite work for the general secondary credential.

Note that the interns completed twelve units of professional education work before they began teaching this fall. This is more than is usually required prior to the first assignment in student teaching. In addition, they have been kept together in an integrated program especially tailored to fit their special needs. Thus they are more ready than might at first be apparent to meet the problems of the classroom.

Two features of this program warrant special mention. One is the role of the advisory teachers. As mentioned previously, each of these carefully selected master teachers is assigned to the supervision of four interns as his sole responsibility. Thus we have a true intern situation, somewhat comparable to the medical internship in that neophytes are closely guided by experienced practitioners while engaging in all the experiences required during full service in the profession. The intern teachers receive three-fourths salary during the fall semester and seven-eighths during the spring. This differential permits the assignment of the advisory teachers with little additional cost to the district.

Another feature is the close cooperation between the school district and the college. The entire program, from its inception four years ago, has been developed and operated by an advisory committee with representation from both the district and the college. Personnel from the district have regularly been assigned to team up with college instructors in the teaching of the required courses. Supervision is furnished by both. Two coordinators, one from the college and one from the district, handle the details of the program. It is felt that this cooperative approach has immeasurably strengthened the program. In addition, it has furnished another valuable avenue of communication between the San Diego city schools and the San Diego State College.

This intern program has been developed to supplement, not supplant, regular programs for preparing elementary and secondary teachers. Evidence obtained during the evaluation of the elementary program indicates that mature and able college graduates can be successfully prepared for teaching service through this approach. It seems likely that the same will be found to be true at the junior high level.

School District—Institution Evaluation

By CLARK ROBINSON*

What would you do if you were commissioned to design and operate a new and unique program of teacher education? Experiment, you are told. Be creative. Depart from common practices as much as you think advisable. Select and provide the learning experiences which will most surely help those in your program to become competent classroom teachers. Arrange these learning experiences in the best possible sequence. Use the most effective methods you know. Given this charge, what would you do?

You would need answers to a number of questions. What are the best experiences? What is the best possible sequence? What are the best methods? You design a teacher education program which you believe incorporates the right answers. But how can you be sure you are right when the program you plan is new in design and unique in many of its features?

One way to evaluate your program, of course, would be to wait until your graduates are teaching. Their success will provide a measure of your program's effectiveness. Long before that time, however, don't you want to know the strengths and weaknesses of various elements of your program? Don't you want to know where modifications are needed and what they should be? If you do, then you had better provide in your plans for a continuous program of evaluation.

A built-in plan of evaluation is a significant feature of the University of California Special Program for the Preparation of Secondary Teachers, now in its second year of operation on the Berkeley campus. Part of the very design of the Program, this plan of evaluation looks in two directions and uses various measures to assess: (1) the vitamin-packed "diet" planned by the staff to promote rapid and sound professional growth of interns, and (2) the growth of interns toward professional competency. Finally, it measures the teaching effectiveness of its graduates. Who participates and what instruments are used in this comprehensive and continuous evaluation program? An answer must be prefaced by a brief description of the Special Program.

What is the Special Program?

The Special Program is a graduate year of professional teacher education for college graduates who have had no previous professional education. It is made up of three periods extending through two summers and the intervening school year as follows:

1. The first summer, a preparation for internship teaching, involves observation, participation and teaching at the University Demon-

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stration Secondary School and a daily seminar conducted by the Program Staff.

2. Next, the intern has a year of paid teaching experience in a regular public school teaching assignment with full responsibility. Weekly evening seminars are conducted on the campus by the Program Staff.
3. During the second summer, the intern takes work in teaching-subject fields for six weeks followed by a four-week seminar to complete professional content requirements leading to University recommendation for the General Secondary Teaching Credential.

What Persons Evaluate?

These are the persons who work with the interns. Each plays a part in evaluation.

1. Members of the Program Staff, working as a "team," exercise continuing responsibility for the screening, placement, instruction, and supervision of the intern group.
2. Master teachers at the Demonstration School work closely with the interns during their eight weeks of assistant teaching the first summer.
3. University Secondary Supervisors in the ninth week of the first summer help the interns make specific preparation for their internship teaching assignment and then closely supervise the interns during their internship year of teaching.
4. Principals and supervisors in cooperating school districts have the major responsibility for supervision during the internship year of teaching. The rating they give the intern as a member of the teaching staff is an evaluation of that teacher's professional competence and, indirectly, an evaluation of the Special Program by which he was prepared for teaching.

What Instruments of Evaluation are Used?

The Internship Program is a concentrated professional experience. One educator referred to it as a plan to achieve "the greatest possible professional growth in the least possible time." To achieve this effectiveness, the Program Staff must plan the professional "diet" carefully, both in terms of the immediate needs of the learner and of his growth toward the long-term goal of professional competency. The staff must have a constant flow of information from the interns and from those professional people who work in one way or another with them. Several evaluative instruments are employed regularly.

Seminar Evaluation—Each intern makes a daily evaluation of the semi-

nar. On a five-point scale he gives a numerical rating in response to each of the following questions:

1. On the whole, *how helpful* was the seminar to you?
2. Was subject *content suited* to *your needs?*
3. Were the methods used *appropriate* for meeting *your needs?*
4. For you, were the *methods* used *effectively?*

Then he checks the appropriate blank in this statement: "For the present, has too much ....., enough ....., too little ..... time been given to this subject?"

Finally, in an open-end statement he reacts to the seminar.

Daily Log—During the first summer at the Demonstration School, while engaged in his assistant teaching activities the intern each day records on this form what he believes to be his more significant learning experiences. In an appropriate column he checks the nature of such activities and the time spent in each. Listed are: observation, participation, teaching, and conferences.

Needs and Progress Report—This form lists forty items under six categories characterizing desirable personal attributes and classroom practices of the teacher. It is used by the intern, the Program Staff, the Master Teacher at the Demonstration School, and by the University Supervisor to provide a common basis for the evaluation of the intern's needs and progress throughout his assistant teaching and internship year of teaching. First, it is checked periodically in terms of the needs of an intern at a particular time. Finally, it is used as a progress report, indicating the extent to which—through growth—the intern has met each need. On those numerous occasions when conferences are held with the intern regarding his teaching, this device provides conferees a common point of reference.

School Principals' Rating—Each semester of the internship teaching year the intern is rated by the principal of the school in which he is employed. He is rated a second year as a part of the follow-up program to determine the professional competence of graduates.

Other Evaluation Devices—Although there are other evaluation devices used in the screening of candidates and throughout the 15-month period of the Program, those which have been described are the more significant elements of the built-in evaluation.

A pilot group of twenty-three persons began their preparation for teaching in June 1956; a second group of fifty-five in June 1957. Although the basic design of the Special Program remained much the same, minor changes were made and the present interns have had some advantages over the pilot group. As the third group begins the Program in June 1958, they will have still further advantages. The evaluation devices will have indicated further ways of strengthening the University of California Special Program in Teacher Education.

A School District's Reaction to the Internship Program

By ROBERT TODD*, and GORDON McANDREW†

In the spring of 1956, the Oakland Unified School District was requested by the School of Education, University of California, to participate in its experimental teaching internship program. This program, described elsewhere in the symposium, was presented to the district as an "upside-down" approach to teacher education having a two-fold purpose: to experiment with some new approaches to the professional preparation of teachers, and to help alleviate the critical shortage of teachers in certain areas.

Great interest in the plan developed after discussion between Oakland's superintendent, Selmer Berg, and his staff. A green light with respect to participation was the ruling by the State Department of Education that school districts would not need to sign a "statement of need" to employ the provisionally credentialed interns.

This initial interest was based on the district's recognition of its own present and future teacher needs in the science and mathematics areas particularly. Another factor was Oakland's interest in cooperating with the University in a new approach to teacher education. The Oakland District has had a good relationship with the Berkeley Campus for many years—Oakland schools have long provided student teaching opportunities to the University and, in turn, have looked to Berkeley as an excellent source of teachers. The district was concerned also with its obligation to further teacher education, a professional responsibility incumbent upon all school districts.

Although the critical areas were and are mathematics and science, the district—with an eye to future needs—agreed to consider for employment interns in homemaking and girls' physical education. In these four areas, then, the Oakland School District employed a limited number of interns for 1956–57. The usual personnel procedures for employing new teachers were followed in the hiring of the interns. They were compared with all other applicants. Qualifications, not identity with the internship program per se, were the primary consideration in their employment.

The first year's experience was a satisfactory one for Oakland. All of the interns save one successfully completed their internships and were offered reemployment contracts. Evaluation by principals indicated the group to be slightly better than average among beginning teachers. On a five-point scale covering seven areas of competency, the composite rating of interns was 1.8, compared to 2.2 for a random sample of first-year teachers.

A gratifying bonus to the district accompanying the first year's experi-

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ence was a renewed interest in teacher education among principals, supervisors, and teachers. The following reactions are typical of comments received from those working with interns in a supervisory capacity:

"The internship idea is a good one. It has worked well in Oakland. The interns are helping to relieve pressure in certain critical areas. The program brings to teaching experienced people from business and industry who couldn't otherwise afford to enter the profession. The program deserves to continue and expand."

"This is a good program. To develop it to its fullest potential, perhaps the following things should be considered:

1. The interns need to have in their course work more stress given to adolescent characteristics.
2. In the first summer's preparation, outstanding classroom teachers with a variety of experience might well be closely involved to give assistance in successful and practical methods of classroom organization and management.
3. Interns, along with all beginning teachers, need to learn that an admission of problems is not an admission of weakness. Greater attention might well be given, both in the program and the districts, to staff relationships with respect to classroom problems and available sources of help.
4. The further development of the partnership concept between university and districts in order to have assignments compatible with intern's strengths and weaknesses."

"I liked the personal contact with the University and interns throughout the internship process. Also the periodic planning and evaluation conferences involving project staff, district personnel and the interns. Perhaps most stimulating was the personal satisfaction resulting from participation in an experimental enterprise."

Certainly the enthusiasm of the interns toward this new approach in professional preparation served as a catalyst to all with whom they worked. When it came time to employ for this school year, there was no question about Oakland's participation. *Double the number of interns were employed for 1957–58.*

Besides being a new source of teachers in critical areas, the program offers other major advantages to the participating districts. The interviews through the University of California Teacher Placement Office revealed the merits of the pre-selection of candidates by the special program staff. The research findings of the program in the area of teacher selection should in themselves be a great contribution to teacher education. *Might it not be that making teacher education programs highly selective will bring more and better people into the profession?* Is it really necessary that teaching be, as it sometimes is, a profession of default?

In Oakland's own selection process, an examination of candidates' experiences revealed a rich background of work in various fields related to their teaching majors. Among interns now teaching in Oakland, there is

a chemist, a pharmacist, an accountant, a scientific researcher, a medical technician, a retired naval officer, a nursery school teacher, and a home economist. We feel that the maturity and background brought to teaching by such people as these contribute greatly to a well-rounded education for the secondary school students of Oakland. It is encouraging to observe the self-confidence, flexibility, and the "missionary zeal" brought to the classroom by the interns.

Another advantage of the internship approach is its allowance for a certain amount of tailoring in the program. Many of the interns employed by Oakland in the spring were able to have their first summer's student teaching at the University of California Demonstration Secondary School related closely to their fall assignments. The number of student teaching hours approximates those taken by student teachers in the regular program. The enhanced motivation involved in this preparation for a definite and immediate situation in a closely related setting is unquestionable. One has only to observe the intern program in its summer phase at the Demonstration School to know that these people have a real purpose to what they are doing. It is indeed interesting to watch interns in a variety of actual classroom operations. To be sure, the excellent organization of the Demonstration School with its superior administration and faculty has much to do with the quality of the first summer's preparation. Our only reservation with reference to the Demonstration School is that it does not offer a junior high school program. One can only hope that the University will see fit to expand the school's operation in this direction.

The weekly seminars accompanying the actual classroom teaching during the school year have value in providing an opportunity for interns to relate theory and practice. Also, perhaps such weekly sessions help preserve among interns an identity and attachment to a group, a security to counterbalance the inevitable and somewhat frightening feeling of "being on your own" experienced by all beginning teachers.

The work during the two summers seems like a satisfactory work load. Oakland questions the seminars accompanying the first full year of teaching. It is usually recommended that first-year teachers in the district do not take additional course work. This problem has been raised with the special program staff. As discussed above, there are values to the seminars. Also, the project staff must consider the credentialing problem relating to units necessary for the general secondary credential. Yet Oakland feels that continued exploration of this problem of intern load is necessary. Are there some possible alternatives?

What of Oakland's future participation in this program? It is our hope that the experimental program can eventually become a *permanent* feature of teacher education at the University of California. Certainly, in the years to come, teacher needs will increase, particularly in the critical fields referred to in this article. *In the partnership between the University of California and the Oakland Unified School District in the present intern program, we have taken one big step in meeting the problem confronting all of us in the recruiting of competent classroom teachers.*

Some Implications—from the San Francisco Internship Program

By ALICE E. SIEMONS*

In addition to its regular programs of teacher education, San Francisco State College offers to certain selected students alternative plans for qualifying for a credential. One alternative plan called The Teacher Recruitment Project, is the subject of this article.

The Teacher Recruitment Project is a program cooperatively developed by the San Francisco Unified School District and San Francisco State College. It is supported by a grant ($350,000 for a five-year program) to the school district by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. The project has three major purposes: (1) to recruit liberal arts graduates for teaching in the elementary and secondary schools, (2) to explore a new source of teacher supply, and (3) to investigate patterns of teacher preparation which provide more time in classrooms than do most programs.

Administration of the Project

Representatives of the school district and of the college are responsible for the administration of the project. The district handles the funds, participates in the selection of the candidates, provides personnel for consultant help, and makes available laboratory situations for observation, participation and student teaching. The college participates in selection, contributes personnel for instruction and supervision of laboratory experiences.

The budget for the project has two parts. The Fund for the Advancement of Education provides: (a) a fellowship of $1,500 per school year for each recruit payable at the rate of $125 per month while he remains in good standing, (b) tuition and registration fees paid to the college, and (c) the salaries for two full time college staff members for full time instruction and supervision. In addition the school district provides: (a) salary for the supervisor of the project, and (b) consultant help from the administrative staff of the school district. The district estimates these costs at approximately $100,000 for the five-year period.

Selection of Recruits

Candidates for the fellowships should: (1) hold a baccalaureate degree from a liberal arts college, (2) have had little or no previous work in professional education courses, and (3) have had an undergraduate program which will permit completion of credential program in fifteen months or less.

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Candidates for the fellowships are selected through personal interviews before a panel of representatives of the school district and the college.

Organization of Program for Students

During the three years the project has been in operation the program for the students has been planned and guided by the members of the Planning and Advisory Committee made up of representatives from the college and the school district. These objectives have gradually been defined by the committee as the guidelines for the development of the project:

A. To explore the relationships of the college and the public school in the preparation of teachers.

B. To recruit liberal arts graduates for the teaching profession and to evaluate the effectiveness of such a scheme.

C. To accumulate data and guides for improved organization of college programs of teacher education.

D. To explore the following elements in the preparation of teachers:
   1. The role of direct experience in the preparation of teachers.
   2. The role of problem solving in the preparation of teachers.
   3. Means of meeting individual needs and utilizing individual resources in the preparation of teachers.
   4. Opportunities for integration in the program for the preparation of teachers.
   5. Means for diagnostic evaluation that can be used both for final appraisal and in developmental programing for individuals and the group.

The major characteristics of the program developed within the framework of the objectives are:

A. Direct experiences with children and youth are central to the program.
   1. Provision is made for frequent and increasing contacts with children in classroom situations.
   2. Responsibility for the guidance of children varies with the readiness of the student and ranges from guided observation through assuming complete responsibility for a group.
   3. Individual differences among students are provided for through variation in placement, length of assignment, and the kind and amount of responsibility.
   4. Variety is provided through placement in different types of situations on different grade levels.

B. The problem-solving approach to learning is basic to the organization of the program.

1. Seminars in educational sociology, child development, learning, and curriculum, are developed according to students' needs as identified by them and their instructors.
2. Emphasis is placed on student-teacher planning as an aid in identifying the needs of the group.
3. Records of student problems are maintained and utilized in planning seminar work.

C. Individual differences among students are met in various ways.

1. Direct experiences are adjusted according to the needs of the individual.
2. Regularly scheduled individual conferences help identify students' strengths and needs for further study and/or experience.
3. Summer session programs are geared to the needs of the individual.

D. Integration of areas within the program is provided:

1. The staff works closely together to assure integration among various seminars and to provide for continuity throughout the program.
2. The elementary and secondary groups work together consistently in the seminars in educational sociology and child development and as appropriate in curriculum seminars.

E. Evaluation of the progress of the students and of the program itself is continuous.

1. Data have been gathered each year concerning the nature of the group and their progress in learning to become teachers. These data will be reported later in the project.
2. An important aspect of evaluation is the identification of aspects of the project appropriate for the regular program of teacher education.

Findings

The staff has found the implementation of the objectives of the project a challenging task. Certain conclusions may be stated tentatively at this time:

1) The project has attracted a number of liberal arts graduates who have qualified for credentials and are now teaching.
2) Study of the selected recruits reveals that they are similar to the liberal arts graduates in the regular credential programs in terms of aptitude, performance on a professional knowledge test, recognition of "good" teaching practice, and in their performance in student teaching.

3) Reaction of staff members who have worked with the recruits and with the students in the regular credential program indicate that:

   a. The project students through their direct experiences seem to be more aware of their professional needs in classes than are the regular college students.

   b. The work in the seminars seems to have more meaning for the project groups judging from the contributions they make, the issues they raise, and the illustrations they give out of their own background of experience.

   c. The readiness of the students for responsibility in student teaching is greater initially among the project group but this difference levels off as the regular students gain in experience.

In conclusion, the project has successfully recruited liberal arts graduates for service in the public schools. Those associated with the project feel that many aspects of the program show definite promise for incorporation in the regular program for the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers.

I Am an Intern

By JOANNE LAFLER*

What's That? At a recent Asilomar conference of the Central California Council of Teachers of English I suffered a rather deflating experience. The members of the group on "Problems of First and Second Year Teachers" introduced themselves in turn, and when my turn came I introduced myself as an *intern* from the Special Program at Cal. The group chairman, a teacher from Carmel, looked up and said, "What's that?"

Ridiculous! Unheard of! Everyone knew about the Internship Program! We were making education history, or so we had been told. But what was perhaps more deflating than not being known was the fact that I experienced a certain difficulty in explaining exactly what an intern is. Like most of my fifty-five fellows interns I had been so deeply involved in the Program for nine weeks during the summer that it was difficult to step aside and view myself and the Program objectively.

The following notes are an attempt to record the experiences of one intern, typical only in the sense that I shared these experiences with fifty-five other people during the summer of the second year of the Special Program for Teacher Education at the University of California.

The Motley Crew. On June 1, 1957, the members of the second group of interns assembled for an orientation meeting at the University of California. Until that time we had been merely names on the blackboard in Room 8, Haviland Hall. In the flesh, we were a motley crew. A few seemed to be youngsters fresh out of college. Several older people turned out to be not master teachers but married men and women with teen-age children who were, also, interns. The majority of us—the group into which I fell—had been out of school from two to ten years, in business, in the service, at home with small children.

As we surveyed each other tentatively, the thought that ran through most of our heads was probably, "What attracted *them* to the Program?" My answer may be fairly typical. I had a bachelor's degree in English from the University of California, and a year of graduate work under my belt. In the hundred and thirty-five units of my college work not one unit of education courses might be found. Yet I had the temerity to want to be a high school teacher, and to attain that happy state as quickly as possible.

I was convinced that the University's Intern Program had been designed especially for me. With my husband still in school, I could not afford to spend another year as a full-time student to acquire my teaching credential through the regular program. I was anxious to begin my career as soon as possible. Aside from the inducement of working as a full-time, fully-paid teacher while continuing to learn to teach, I knew little about the Program.

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We Get Oriented. At the orientation meeting we learned about the structure of the Program. Some of us may have been shocked to discover that we would begin student-teaching almost immediately at the Demonstration Secondary School in Oakland, without so much as a theory to hang our hats upon. I was certainly appalled to learn that our day would last roughly from 7:45 a.m. until 4 p.m. (no relaxing summer, this!), and would include, in addition to a student teaching assignment, classroom observations, audio-visual labs, library workshops and—oh, yes—a two-hour seminar in the afternoon devoted to methods of classroom management, testing, evaluation, etc. In short, our lives, for eight weeks, were to be devoted intensively to teaching and learning to teach.

Stage-fright. Working under the direction of a staff of superior master teachers, most of us took over our classes, in whole or in part, the first week. Sheer shock got us through those first days. I was not too petrified at the prospect of facing a roomful of students, for a master teacher and a supervisor were waiting to pull me out if I swam too near the deep end.

I remember making one entry in my daily log (a record which all of us kept of our daily activities and experiences) in the second week. It ran, " 'Fools rush in where angels fear to tread,' and today I was a fool; but 'we learn by making mistakes,' and today I learned a lot." We had been warned about preparing careful lesson plans. I had not prepared a lesson plan at all! We had been cautioned about setting reasonable objectives. I had no idea what I intended to accomplish that day. The net result was that my snappy presentation of "how to begin a composition" laid a big, fat egg. I experienced an overwhelming sense of failure. My excuse? Well, I had learned a lot. Also, I was enthusiastic, and like a lot of enthusiastic people I had poorly estimated my preparation.

Enthusiasm. I was not alone in my desire to "get in there and teach." The atmosphere of enthusiasm at the Demonstration School was infectious. Partly this enthusiasm was contributed by other interns. Mainly, however, it was the result of the youthful, experimental attitude of our master teachers and Program supervisors. These experienced men and women viewed each Summer Session class as a new teaching challenge. Their desire to try new methods, to explore new subject areas, made us feel that inexperience was not a detriment, that we were all learning. During those first weeks few of us got to know each other as individuals. Shop talk consumed most of our leisure time, spent over coffee cups in the teachers' lounge. We were full of our experiences, anxious to talk about our successes and failures. And if we minimized our successes at first, it was only because we needed reassurance.

Lunchtime was often spent in informal meetings and committee meetings. Faculty meetings were held once a week, during which time we discussed what the Demonstration School was doing as a whole. And, of course, in our small seminar groups (we were divided into three groups of roughly twenty each) we shared experiences in relation to the methods

discussed at our general seminars. Was it a wonder that we were pitched at a high key for the first two weeks?

The Low Point. I have discovered, since I began my regular teaching this fall, that all teachers experience a low point after the first frenetic weeks of the semester wear off. If I ever discover a means of combatting this problem I expect to win an award. I did not, however, know how general this phenomenon was when, after my second week of student teaching, I walked into my supervisor's office and said, "I can't go on." Or words to that effect.

He explained patiently that all new teachers feel this way. He might have said all teachers, period. Enthusiasm alone cannot carry one through the daily experience of classroom teaching. It was time, perhaps, to view some of the problems of teacher-student relations with a slightly jaundiced eye. It was time to examine our motivations and objectives. It was time to realize that teaching is a hard job and that its demands on one's emotions and physical energy are great.

For many of us this low point was a sinister warning of the problems which would face us, five-fold, in the fall. For others it was a challenge to be met with renewed inventiveness and greater effort. We sat down and planned units. We tried to see our remaining six weeks in a broader perspective.

We Get Into the Swing. After that, life became more routine. Shop talk continued in the faculty lounge, but with one difference. We were less concerned with daily problems and more concerned with some of the underlying social and philosophical implications of teaching. Our discussions ranged from the problems of racial minorities to controversies in the field of educational theory. We argued pro and con about everything with all the passion of neophytes.

In the classroom we felt more at ease, though never really blasé. I never conquered my habit of clutching the wooden rostrum (gift of the class of '39) as I explained each day's assignments. But I felt more able to control what problems might arise, and I managed to organize my class (combined basic and advanced composition) into two groups, working independently most of the time. I began to see my students as individuals and to like them as such. By the end of the first report-card period I experienced a certain sense of accomplishment.

You're Over-Septemberizing. The cry that rang through our seminar rooms during the last four weeks was not a battle-cry. It was a plea for calm and sanity. The pressure was on. Not only did we feel pressed in our classroom situations—there was still so much that we hoped to accomplish, if only time would permit—but September loomed large, a menacing spectre.

Our seminar discussions revolved more and more around our fall classes. So many problems seemed unanswered. We all felt the tension, and the cry, "You're over-Septemberizing!" was a demand to calm down a bit, to tackle the problems at hand rather than worry about those of the future.

The interns divided into two groups: those who felt that it was a waste of time to speculate about the future, and those who felt the need of specific

advice for the same. Our supervisors tried to calm our fears, but "Septemberitis" became as infectious in those last weeks as enthusiasm had been at the beginning. Even I, who counted myself in the first, or "waste of time" group, suffered from an attack of psychosomatic gastro-enteritis (my own diagnosis).

Fifty-five Fallen Faces. And then it was all over. The last report card had been handed out and we met for coffee before our last seminar. Eight weeks had passed quickly, and we experienced a sense of *fait accompli,* or *non accompli,* which was depressing.

Most remarkable of all, the fifty-five members of the Program, the "motley crew" of June first, had become a real group on that last day. We sensed that we had gotten to know each other as few people do, through a sharing of experiences, and we felt slightly depressed to realize that we would be splitting up for a ninth week workshop devoted to planning for our regular teaching jobs, never to exist again as the same kind of group. We would meet again in the fall, for a weekly seminar, but it would not be the same. Nothing would ever be like those eight hectic weeks at the Demonstration School. It was this sense of sharing which made the Internship Program a unique experience in my life.

Before the Deluge. After that, everything was more businesslike. We settled down, in our workship week, to work with our subject supervisors on specific unit plans for our fall classes. "Over-Septemberizing" was no longer a thing to be feared. September was a reality to be faced with all of the experience we had gained during the summer.

After the Deluge. Bright smiles covered lines of fatigue as we gathered together at the first weekly seminar on September twenty-fifth. We had been teaching for three weeks and most of us felt as if we had been teaching all of our lives! A competition seemed to be brewing as to who could relate the most harrowing experiences. "My seventh period class . . ." "Well, you should see *my* seventh period class!"

I was glad to see the other interns. My classes had run smoothly for the first time that day and I felt on top of the world. I was depressed to hear some sad tales, and happy to hear of interns who had dreamy assignments. The banter that night served to remind us that we were still a closely-knit group; that our varied experiences of the last month had not really driven us apart. For we were the Intern Group of 1957. What's that? Why, everyone knows. Maybe even you—the reader—know by now!

I Was an Intern

By CARLTON GARSKE*

For me, the intern program was the creation of a teacher, not the manufacture of one. As it must be for all beginning teachers, my entry into the teaching profession was a very personal thing, involving great changes in my life. When, as a "graduate," I attempt to evaluate my experiences as an intern, the evaluation becomes a weighing of those parts of the program which exerted the greatest influence upon me, rather than of those things which are unique to the research project. I believe that my opinions reflect, for the most part, the feelings of the other members of the intern group, though I have made no attempt to arrive at a consensus of opinion.

In the beginning, we interns were complete babes in the woods. We knew very little about education; we knew virtually nothing about teaching. But if we had no conceptions about teaching, we had few misconceptions. We knew that we knew nothing; and with the challenge of entering a new profession facing us, we committed ourselves wholeheartedly to the program. It was in the completeness of this commitment, in the willing giving of ourselves to be changed, overwhelmed, frustrated, and taught, that we gained strength. It was a strength built into the nature of the program; it was a strength supplied in part by the interns themselves. It created within the intern group an esprit de corps; we thought of ourselves as a group, with common problems, experiences, and hopes for success. It also created an allegiance to the research project, and hopes for its success. We worked harder because of it.

There was a vitality in the program that was very important to its members. Perhaps the primary feature of the project was the dynamic interplay of ideas, experiences, and attitudes, between the instructors and the interns. We regarded the project staff members as friends as well as instructors, and the close personal relationships that were formed played a major role in determining what the interns gained from the program. As a group, the interns drew upon one another as sources of information, guidance, and, frequently, inspiration. As teachers, we brought to our conferences and seminars the experiences and lessons of the classroom. But always, it was the experience and understanding of our instructors from which we drew most heavily. I hope you will forgive me if I take this opportunity to thank, in print, those persons who contributed most to my understanding and conception of what a teacher should be: my master teacher, my subject supervisor, and the project staff. Their responsibility was a great one; to the extent it was possible, the interns made themselves over into the image of their instructors.

The nature and quality of the instruction was reflected in the organi-

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zation of the program. The conjunction of seminars and conferences with the actual teaching experience merged the learning process into a unity. Because the instruction was geared to our needs, the job of translation between the theoretical and the immediate classroom situation was always effective and meaningful. Through adaptation, experimentation, and compromise, the instruction implemented and reinforced the experiences of the interns. It is worthy to note, I think, that the interns never regarded the seminars or related meetings as part of a course, to be completed at a specific time, with a grade to be earned. The emphasis was on the program as a single, continuous learning process. Further, the atmosphere of close cooperation and understanding created the habit of continuous evaluation of strengths and weaknesses, methods and purposes, on the part of the interns as well as the staff.

Most important, the intern program was never merely the accumulation of experience or knowledge. Its real depth was in its total effect, in the pervasive and lasting quality of its impact upon the intern. Always, we knew that the final evaluation of our experiences would rest upon the kind of teachers we would become. And we knew that the greatest contribution of the intern program was not the background it supplied us; it was, rather, the attitude toward education it gave us. It is an attitude which holds that the education of a teacher is a continuous and never-ending process, with very great horizons, and with deep and challenging responsibilities.